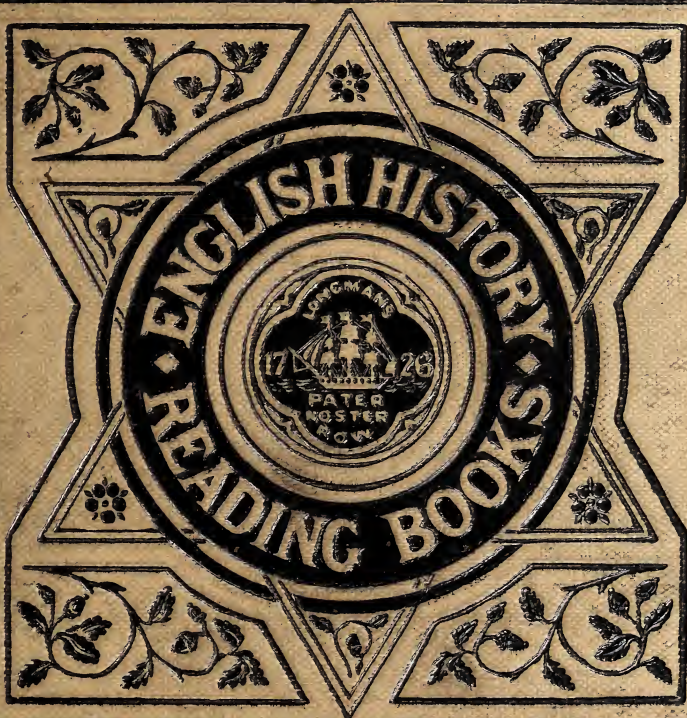


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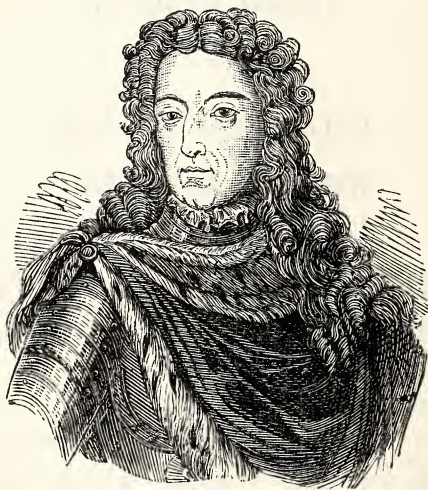
CHAPTER XXXII.

WILLIAM AND MARY.

(1689-1694.)

1. The Revolution and the Toleration Act.—Soon after James was gone, a Parliament met. After much discussion, it declared that James had given up the Crown by governing badly and by leaving England. It then offered the throne, which had thus become vacant, to William and Mary. They were to be joint sovereigns. Mary's head was to appear on the coins, and she was to be named in all public announcements together with her husband ; but, as long as they both lived, William alone was to govern. If either of them died, the other was to continue to reign ; and when they were both dead, unless

they left children, the Crown was to go to Mary's sister, the Princess Anne. All this was settled by Parliament ; and Parliament was able to do very much as it thought right. The King and Queen were on the throne because Parliament had put them there, and



WILLIAM III.

not because they were born to it. If Parliament declared against them, they would hardly be able to keep themselves there. One of the first consequences of the change was the passing of the Toleration Act. The Dissenters at last got permission by law to worship in their own chapels. The Catholics did

not get permission to do the same. People were afraid of them and angry with them, as they had been with the Dissenters after the Restoration. They were therefore determined to keep them down. Yet it was not long before they found out that there were not enough of them to be afraid of ; and so, after a time, the Catholics got toleration as well as the Dissenters, and were allowed to worship in their own way ; though it was a very long time before they were allowed to hold offices.

2. The War in Scotland.—William knew that he would have to fight for his Crown. He was himself at the head of a number of states on the Continent which were at war with the King of France ; and Lewis XIV. was sure to do all that he could do to overthrow him in England. In Scotland the greater part of the people took William's side. Lord Dundee, a brave soldier, who was one of James's supporters, went into the Highlands, and got together an army of Highlanders, who were very fond of fighting, and who, being very poor in their wild mountains, were glad of an excuse to plunder the Lowlands. Dundee drew up his Highlanders at the top of a steep ascent through the pass of Killie-

crankie, near Blair Athol. William's troops came panting up the hill in a hot summer day. When they drew near the top the Highlanders rushed down, slashing them with their broadswords. The soldiers turned and fled, with the Highlanders after them. Dundee was shot before the flight began; and the Highlanders went back to their homes, carrying off their plunder. Soon afterwards, William's officers placed soldiers in forts near the places where the Highlanders were likely to come out, and gave presents to the chiefs; so that there was no more war in Scotland for a long time.

3. The Massacre of Glencoe.—The Highland chiefs were required to swear that they would live peaceably in the future. They had to take the oath by a certain day. When that day came, all had sworn except one. That one was Mac Ian of Glencoe, a rocky and desolate valley in the Western Highlands. Mac Ian was an old man, the chief of a small clan. He had intended to take the oath, but he thought it would be a very grand thing to take it as late as possible, after all the great chiefs had sworn. Unluckily for him, he went to swear at a place where there was no one appointed to receive his oath. He at once

went on to another place, where he took the oath in a proper manner ; but, by the time he arrived, the appointed day was past. Unfor-



fortunately for Mac Ian, the Master of Stair, who governed Scotland for William, was delighted to find an excuse for punishing him. He knew that Highlanders were always ready to

fight, and to rob, and that Mac Ian's clan was rather more ready to carry off cattle from the Lowlands than other Highlanders. He determined to make an example of them. He got permission from William 'to extirpate that set of thieves.' He proceeded to do his cruel work in a particularly cruel and treacherous manner. He sent soldiers to Glencoe. These soldiers came under pretence of being friendly with the inhabitants. They lived amongst them, ate at their tables, laughed and played at cards with them. Early one morning, whilst it was yet dark, the soldiers surrounded the huts of those with whom they had made merry the evening before, dragged them out of their beds and murdered them, or shot them down as they attempted to fly. Many, indeed, contrived to escape ; but it was bitter winter weather, and not a few of those who escaped died of cold and hunger amongst the snows in which they sought shelter. It is not likely that the Massacre of Glencoe will ever be forgotten in Scotland.

4. The Siege of Londonderry.—The war in Ireland lasted longer than that in Scotland. Though there were many persons there of English descent, the mass of the people were Irish by birth, and Catholic by religion.

They had been treated badly by Cromwell ; and, after the Restoration, they were not much better treated by Charles II. When James II. had tried to make changes in England, he hoped to get help from the Irish. He had sent over a governor who got together an army of Irish Catholics. The Irish, for once, had everything their own way. They chased out the English Protestants from their homes, and robbed them and ill-treated them, as they had done in 1641. The English had only a few towns left where they were still safe. One of these was Londonderry. James himself came to Ireland, and hoped that Londonderry would soon surrender, and then all Ireland would be his. Lundy, the governor, made up his mind to surrender the place, and gave orders that when the Irish army arrived there should be no resistance. Two brave soldiers refused to obey such orders as these. A clergyman named Walker called on the men of Londonderry to resist. Shouting ‘No surrender,’ the people rushed to the open gates, and closed them in James’s face. The Irish then surrounded the town, so that no food could enter in, and threw across the river, on which it stands, a boom ; that is to say, a barrier formed of pieces of timber fastened

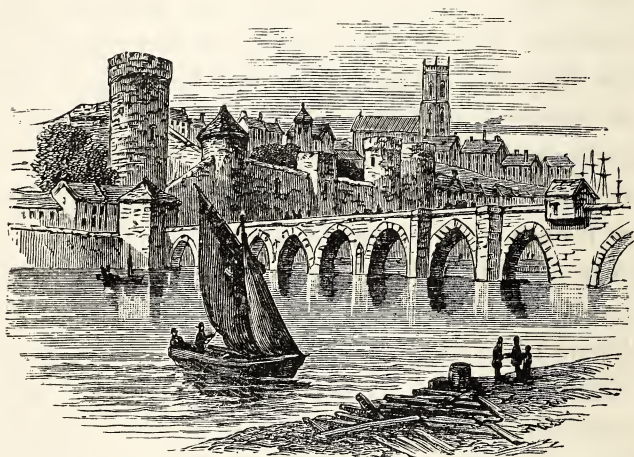
together, which might prevent any ships coming up to bring in food. The defenders of the town were almost starved. After some time, they had no meat except horseflesh to eat, and they had not much of that. From the top of the cathedral they could see, far off, the vessels which William had sent to help them ; but, for weeks, the vessels did not venture to come up the river to try to break the boom. During this time a large number of the inhabitants died from famine and sickness. Men who had once been well off, were glad if they could buy a piece of dog's flesh. If a little fish was caught on the river it was looked on as a splendid prize, which the fisherman who had secured it would not sell for any money. Even hides were gnawed, in the hope of getting some nourishment out of them. Still, though many perished, those who remained alive refused to think of surrender. Walker's voice was always raised to encourage the sufferers to bear anything rather than give up the town. At last, three of the ships which had waited so long, began to move up the river. One of them dashed at the boom and broke it ; though it was itself driven on shore. The others passed through, and carried the store of food which they bore

to the stout defenders of the city. The besiegers gave up in despair the task of forcing their way into Londonderry.

5. The Battle of the Boyne and the End of the War in Ireland.—The siege of Londonderry took place in the year after William's arrival in England. The next year after that, William crossed to Ireland, and defeated James thoroughly at the battle of the Boyne. James gave up hope, and fled to France once more. The Irish, however, struggled on; and it was not till the next summer that their resistance was finally overcome. They were defeated in another great battle at Aghrim; and those who fought longest took refuge at Limerick. When Limerick was taken they had no hope left. For many years the Protestants, who were almost all of English birth, ruled in Ireland. There was a Parliament at Dublin, in which only Protestants could sit; and from time to time they made hard laws against the Catholics

6. The Battle of Beachy Head.—William was now not popular in England. He did not understand English ways, and he did not know how to make himself agreeable to Englishmen. He did not even talk English very well, and the people never quite liked

having a Dutchman on the throne. But they preferred having a Dutchman on the throne, to having a French army in England ; and, as Lewis wanted to invade England to set James up again, almost all Englishmen were ready to fight for William at such times of danger. When William was in Ireland, a French fleet



LIMERICK.

appeared in the Channel. It was met off Beachy Head by a fleet composed partly of English and partly of Dutch vessels. The English Admiral, Lord Torrington, was in a bad temper. He let the Dutch fight, but would not fight himself. He had consequently to sail away to seek shelter in the

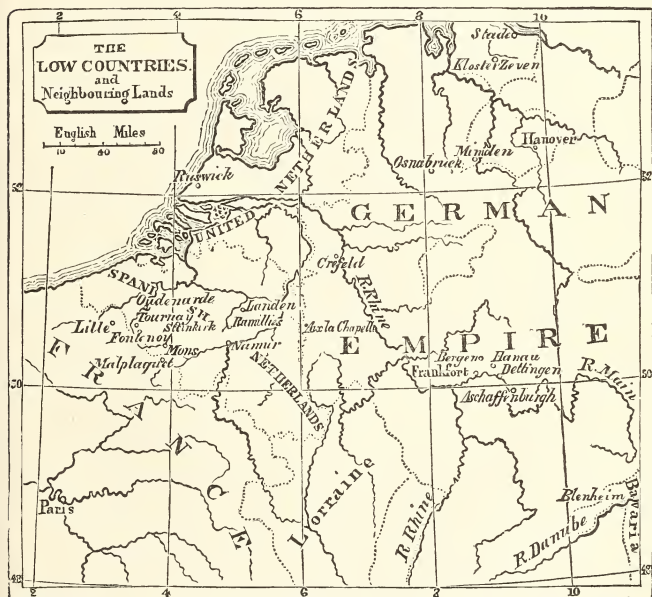
Thames. The French Admiral sailed down the Channel, landed some men at Teignmouth, and burnt the few cottages of which the place was then composed. It was not much to do, but it was enough to rouse the spirit of the nation. There were many people in England who would have been glad to see James on the throne again. But there was scarcely one who was not ready to shed his blood to prevent a French invasion of England.

7. The Battle of La Hogue.—Two years later, the same feeling was again aroused. Another French fleet, and a great French army, were prepared for the invasion of England. Frenchmen thought that, because Englishmen grumbled against William, they would welcome the French who were to come to restore James. The English fleet which was to resist them, was placed under the command of one of the grumblers, Admiral Russell, a brother of the Lord Russell who had been beheaded in the reign of Charles II. He was an ill-tempered man, always fancying that he was not sufficiently respected; and, though he was in William's service, he had even told some friends of James that he would be ready to help his old master back.

One of these men now came to ask him to help James. 'Do not think,' answered the Admiral, 'that I will let the French triumph over us in our own sea. Understand this, that if I meet them I fight them ; ay, though His Majesty himself should be on board.' Russell kept his word. He met the French fleet near the Bay of La Hogue and utterly defeated it. The English sailors followed up their victory, and set the greater part of the French fleet on fire, as it lay under the batteries from which the French had hoped to find shelter. No such victory had been won by an English fleet, since the day when Essex and Raleigh sailed triumphantly into Cadiz Bay. No such victory was won again, till Nelson struck down the French navy at the Nile and at Trafalgar.

8. The War in the Netherlands and the Death of Mary.—Year after year William passed over to the Netherlands to resist the armies of Lewis. In the battles which were fought, the French were always successful, but William never allowed them to gain much by their success. Whilst he was absent, his faithful wife,—who loved him dearly and whom he loved dearly in return,—occupied his place at home. In 1694 she was attacked by

the small-pox. In those days vaccination had not been discovered, and a large number of people died of the small-pox every year. When the physicians told William that there was no hope, his grief was heartrending.



'There is no hope,' he said to one of the bishops. 'I was the happiest man on earth, and I am the most miserable. She had no fault; none: you knew her well,—but you could not know, nobody but myself could know, her goodness.' The Queen died, but

she left her memorial behind her. Charles II. had begun to build on the banks of the Thames, at Greenwich, a magnificent palace, on the site of an old one which had sometimes been occupied by his predecessors. When the Battle of La Hogue was fought, and hundreds of sailors came home wounded, Mary announced her intention of completing that palace, not as a residence for herself or her husband, but as a place of refuge for sailors who had been disabled in the service of their country. Greenwich Hospital is the lasting monument of the gentle Queen.

9. *The Liberty of the Press.*—About this time a most important change was made. No one had been allowed to publish a book till it had been shown to an officer called a licenser ; who might, if he thought right, stop the sale of the book altogether. In this way, those who thought that the Government was doing wrong, were prevented from writing books to say so. Now an end was put to the law which forced authors to get leave from the licenser to publish their books. The result was, that men became more peaceable than they had been before ; because a man who thought things were being done wrong, wrote books or newspapers to persuade others

to join in setting them straight, instead of secretly forming plots to overthrow the Government.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

WILLIAM III.

(1694—1702.)

1. The Siege of Namur.—Till the year 1695, Lewis XIV. had always been victorious. His victories had cost thousands of lives and immense sums of money ; and the French people were growing poor, and were not able to find so much money to pay the soldiers as they had once done. Lewis, too, was spoiled by his good fortune. In the early part of his reign he had taken care to appoint good generals to command his armies, and good ministers to manage his affairs at home. Now he behaved very differently. He gave power to men who flattered him and were agreeable at Court, whether they were fit for their work or not. On the other hand, England and Holland were both trading countries, and

merchandise made them wealthy. William, too, took good care to employ men who were able and willing to work. In 1695 he laid siege to Namur. He managed the siege so skilfully that the French armies were not able to drive him off; and at last the place surrendered. It was like the turn of the tide. It was the first time, in this war, that Lewis had lost a town.

2. The Assassination Plot. — James had not given up all hope. He had still some followers in England, who were called Jacobites, because his name, James, was *Jacobus* in Latin. Lewis had promised to send French soldiers into England, if the English Jacobites would first rise in insurrection against William. The English Jacobites, however, said that they would not rise unless the French soldiers were actually in England to protect them, and Lewis did not think it prudent to send his men across the sea without being quite sure that they would be helped by the Jacobites. Whilst this plan was being discussed, about forty Jacobites resolved to murder William. They knew that when he came back to Hampton Court from hunting he passed through a narrow lane, and that he was accustomed to have only twenty-

five guards with him. The Jacobites resolved to spring suddenly into the lane, to shoot the guards, and then to shoot the King. Fortunately, there were some amongst the plotters who did not like having anything to do with assassination, and they let the King know what had been proposed. The plotters were seized, and some of them were executed. The knowledge that there were Jacobites who intended to murder William had much the same effect as the knowledge that there were Catholics who intended to murder Elizabeth had had a century before. For a long time William had not been popular. He was not only a foreigner, but he was not cheerful or affable in his conversation. Now all this was forgotten ; and for a time he became popular, because there had been an attempt to assassinate him. The greater part of the Lords and Commons eagerly signed a paper which bound them to join in an association in defence of William's Government, and which engaged them to avenge his death upon his murderers, and to support the law which gave the throne to the Princess Anne after William's death. This paper was circulated in the country, and was eagerly signed by thousands of persons, many of whom probably would not have

been very ready to help William, if no one had attempted to murder him.

3. The Restoration of the Currency.—About this time, the Government had to turn its attention to a very different subject. A great part of the silver money in use had been made with smooth edges, unlike the shillings and sixpences with the milled edges which we now have. The consequence was that rogues used to clip the money,—that is to say, shave off small strips of silver from the edges of the coins—and then pass them on a little smaller than they were before. If this trick were attempted now, it would be found out at once, because the milled edge would be cut away. It could not be so easily found out then, but it was quite evident that the money in use was getting smaller. A man who received a shilling in payment might be pretty sure that it would not be worth more than ninepence, and it was very likely that it would not be worth more than sixpence. The result was that scarcely any one paid or received money without quarrelling about it. Those who had to pay a shilling wanted merely to give a coin called a shilling. Those who had to receive a shilling wanted to have as much as would really be worth a shilling. Persons

who sold goods hardly knew what they ought to charge ; and, as usually happens in such cases, they often ended by charging more than they ought. At last the Government and Parliament interfered. New milled money was coined, and given in exchange for the old clipped money. The loss was borne by the public.

4. The Peace of Ryswick.—For two years there had been no more fighting. Lewis did not venture to attack William, and William was content to keep what he had gained. At last, in 1697, a peace was signed at Ryswick, where Lewis acknowledged William to be King of England, and gave up the cause of James. When William went in state to return thanks for the blessing of peace, he went to the new St. Paul's, which still lifts its lofty dome above the City of London, and which was then used for the first time for public worship. It had been slowly rising, after the plan of the great architect Sir Christopher Wren, on the site where the old cathedral had been burnt down thirty-one years before.

5. The Dismissal of the Dutch Guards.—William thought that, though the war was over, it would be well to keep a large part of the army together. He knew that Lewis was

still ambitious, and he thought that, if the large English army was kept on foot, the French king would be much more likely to preserve the peace. The Commons did not think much of this. They wanted to have as little expense as possible; and they remembered too well how Cromwell had ruled England with his soldiers, to like to see a larger army than was absolutely necessary. They insisted, not merely that the army should be diminished, but that the Dutch Guards—which William had brought over with him—should be sent back to their native country. William was bitterly displeased; but he gave way, and allowed the Commons to do as they pleased.

6. The Spanish Succession and the Partition Treaty.—William was thinking more of the Continent of Europe than of England. The King of Spain, Charles II., was an invalid and almost an idiot, and was not likely to live long. Lewis had married his eldest sister, and claimed the Crown of Spain for his descendants. Other princes had claims in other ways. William did not care much what their claims were, but he did not want a son or grandson of a King of France, who was so powerful already, to rule over the

Spanish dominions, which reached over a great part of Italy and the Southern Netherlands, as well as over enormous tracts of country in America. Lewis was not anxious, at first, to go to war again ; and a treaty was made, known as the *First Partition Treaty*, which gave most of the Spanish lands to a young Bavarian prince whom nobody was afraid of. Unfortunately, the youth died, and the arrangement had to be made all over again. This time it was settled, by the *Second Partition Treaty*, that some parts of the Spanish dominions should go to Lewis's grandson Philip, and other parts, including Spain itself, to the Archduke Charles, a younger son of the Emperor who, under other titles, ruled in Austria and the neighbouring countries. At last, in 1700, the poor King of Spain died, leaving a will directing that the whole of his dominions should go to Philip. Lewis accepted the great inheritance for his grandson, and refused to carry out the Partition Treaty.

7. Rise of a War-feeling in England.—In England very few people wanted to have James back. In 1701 the Act of Settlement was passed, which directed that, if William died without children, the Crown should go

to Anne, the sister of his wife Mary, and the daughter of James. After that, it was to go to the Electress Sophia, the next heir who was a Protestant. She was the daughter of Elizabeth, the Electress Palatine; and, through her, the granddaughter of James I. At this time, the Tories had a majority in the House of Commons; and the Tories were more anxious than the Whigs to keep out of war. They therefore refused to assist William in compelling Lewis to carry out the Partition Treaty. Lewis did a great deal to provoke England, and even sent French soldiers to occupy fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, just as if he were the master of his grandson's dominions. But Englishmen seemed determined to keep the peace, whatever Lewis might do. At last, news arrived which entirely changed their temper. James II. died in France. Lewis at once sent to his son,—the boy who had been supposed by so many in England not to be in reality the child of James and the Queen,—and acknowledged him as James III. of England. At once, all England was filled with anger at the insolence of the King of France in giving the name of English King to a boy whose title had been rejected by the English Parliament and nation. William

found no difficulty now in providing for war. He summoned a new Parliament, which voted money and soldiers. At the time when William was expecting to lead an army on the Continent, his end was near. His horse stumbled over a mole-hill in the park of Hampton Court. William broke his collar-bone; and, after lingering a few days, he died. He had done great things for England, especially in stopping the civil wars and the executions of the reigns before him. He ruled according to law; and he was able to guide his Parliaments, because he was always able to keep his temper, and never insisted on having his own way, even when the nation was determined to do things which he thought to be wrong.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

QUEEN ANNE.

(1702-1714.)

1. The Occasional Conformity Bill.—Anne was popular from the beginning of her reign.

She was dull and uninteresting to those who saw her every day ; but the mass of the people, who scarcely ever saw her, or did not see her at all, did not care about that. They were pleased that she was an Englishwoman, and not a foreigner, as William had been. Besides this, it was well known that Anne did not like the Dissenters ; and most people in England did not like the Dissenters either. They had become accustomed by this time to see them using their own chapels, but they did not like to see them holding offices. The Test Act had excluded them from office, as well as the Catholics ; because it required that every one who was appointed to office should receive the communion in a church. Lately, some of the Dissenters had got into offices in spite of this rule, because they did not mind coming to church and receiving the communion there once, though they afterwards went back to their own chapels. This was called *Occasional Conformity*. The Whigs, who were always friendly to the Dissenters, did not object to this ; but the Tories did not like it, and they proposed a Bill against Occasional Conformity, to punish any Dissenter who went to chapel after obtaining office. The House of Commons,

where the greater number were Tories, adopted this plan. But it could not become law unless the House of Lords adopted it too ; and, as the Whigs were stronger than the Tories in the House of Lords, the proposal was for some years always rejected there.

2. *Blenheim and Ramilies.*—The chief command over the army on the Continent, which was to make war against Lewis, was given to the Duke of Marlborough. His wife, the Duchess, was a great favourite of Anne, and he was himself the greatest general who was born in England before the Duke of Wellington. He had to command not only English soldiers, but Dutch and German soldiers as well ; and the kings and princes who sent the German troops were full of their own ideas, and were seldom ready to do what Marlborough wanted them to do. He had to be civil to everybody, and to coax them all to do what was for their own good. During the first two years of the war, he had enough to do to defend the Dutch Netherlands. In 1704 he did more than that. The King of France had Bavaria on his side, and a French army was in Bavaria. Marlborough suddenly marched up the Rhine and across

the wooded hills of the Black Forest. He found the French army at Blenheim on the Danube, and utterly defeated it. It was the first time that a French army had been defeated during the whole reign of Lewis XIV. The result of the battle was, that the French were turned out of Germany. Parliament gave to the Duke a large estate near Woodstock, where he built a splendid mansion, which is known to this day as Blenheim House. Afterwards, Marlborough won another great battle at Ramilies ; after which the French were turned out of nearly the whole of the Netherlands.

3. The War in Spain.—There had also been fighting going on in Spain. In the year in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, Admiral Sir George Rooke found himself at Gibraltar, with a large fleet and nearly 5,000 soldiers. There were only about 150 Spanish soldiers inside the fortress ; and on a saint's day they all went to church. Whilst they were at prayers, the English sailors landed, and took the place without difficulty. It has never been lost again, as the rock which rises above the town has a cliff towards the land side which no enemy can climb ; and on the only occasion on which an enemy has been

strong enough at sea to attack it from the water, the attempt was defeated. Besides this, there were other victories in Spain, and the English and their friends hoped to be able to conquer the country for the Archduke Charles. The Spaniards were determined not to submit to him. They clung to Philip V., for much the same reason as the English had clung to William. They did not like having a foreign king, but they preferred having a king who lived among them to one who tried to force them to obey him by using the help of foreign armies.

4. *The Union with Scotland.*—In the midst of all these victories, a question was raised which was of much greater importance to Englishmen than the question whether the King of Spain was to be Philip or Charles. The Act of Settlement had provided that, after Anne's death, the throne of England should be occupied by the Electress Sophia or her son. But the Scottish Parliament had not done the same thing. As Scotland was a separate kingdom, with a Parliament and laws of its own, it might make arrangements for having a king after Anne's death who might be a different person from the King of England. Of course the English did not like

this. They did not want to have Scotland again unconnected with England, and perhaps ready to make war upon it, as it used to do before James I. had come to rule in England. The Scotch did not in reality want this any more than the English did ; but hitherto, whenever they brought goods to England to sell, they had been forced to pay heavy duties, as if they had been foreigners ; and they were determined that they would not do as the English asked them to do about the throne, unless they could have freedom of trade with England. The English fancied that, if they allowed the Scots to buy and sell in England without paying duties, they would be able to sell things much more cheaply than the English did ; because Scotchmen lived so much more economically than Englishmen, who fed upon bread and beef, instead of feeding on oatmeal porridge. The English were therefore very much frightened lest they should all be ruined, because every one would buy goods from the Scots. At last, however, the English gave way ; and in 1707 the Act of Union was passed, by which England and Scotland became one people, with one Parliament, and with free trade between the two countries, though

Scotland kept its own laws and its own Presbyterian Church. After all, the English did not find that they were ruined.

5. **The Whig Ministry.**—The war was still going on. Mariborough won two more great battles, one at Oudenarde, and another at Malplaquet. In both the French fought desperately ; and there was less advantage gained by the conquerors after these battles than had been gained after those of Blenheim and Ramilies. As the war went on, the Tories began to get tired of it. They thought that it would be quite enough if the French could be driven out of the Netherlands, and that it did not matter to England whether a French prince were King of Spain or not. Ever since the great war in William's time, a practice had been growing up of giving the chief offices in the state to men who agreed together in their political opinions. These officers—a Lord Chancellor, who was at the head of the law ; the First Lord of the Treasury, who looked after the payment of the public money ; the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who looked after the raising of taxes ; the First Lord of the Admiralty, who looked after the Navy ; the Secretaries of State, who gave orders on behalf of the Government in various matters at home

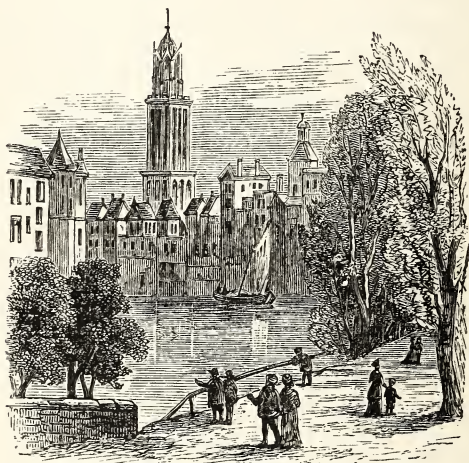
and abroad—met, together with one or two other officials, to consult about affairs of state. They were themselves called Ministers, and their meetings were called the meetings of the Cabinet. The Cabinet in reality governed England. As the Whigs were in favour of the war, and as, for some time, the war was popular, the Whigs gained a majority in the House of Commons after the battle of Blenheim; and Marlborough, who wanted the war to go on, persuaded the Queen to appoint a Whig Cabinet. Before long, however, there came a change in the feelings of the people. Many thought that the time had come to make peace, and this made the Whigs as unpopular in 1709 as they had been popular in 1704—the year of the battle of Blenheim.

6. **The Sacheverell Trial.**—At the end of 1709, when people were getting tired of the war, a certain Dr. Sacheverell preached a sermon against the Dissenters and the Whigs who favoured them. In the course of the sermon, he declared his belief that all resistance to a king was unchristian as well as unlawful. The Whig ministers considered this to be an attack on the resistance which had brought about the Revolution at the end of the reign of James II. They had not yet

learned that liberty of speech was a good thing, even when things were said against themselves; and they were unwise enough to impeach Sacheverell. The preacher became at once popular with the London mob. Crowds ran about the streets, pulling down the Dissenters' chapels, and shouting for the Church and Dr. Sacheverell. The House of Lords condemned Sacheverell's sermon to be burnt, and forbade him to preach for the next three years. It was not a very hard punishment, and Dr. Sacheverell did not lose much by it. As he went about the country, he found himself received as if he had been a king making a progress amongst a loyal people. The church bells were rung, healths were drunk, and bonfires lighted up in his honour. It was quite plain that the people had grown tired of the Whigs.

7. **The Tory Ministry.**—The Queen, too, had never really liked the Whigs, and had only been persuaded by Marlborough to favour them. Just at this time she quarrelled with the Duchess, who had been her great friend ever since she was a child. The Duchess was proud, and violent in temper, and treated the queen so haughtily, that Anne could bear it no longer. The Queen sent away the Duchess

and dismissed the ministers. A new Tory ministry was formed, of which the principal members were Harley,—a diligent, plodding man of no great powers of mind,—and St. John,—a man of very great ability, who could make better speeches than any one in the House of Commons, and who looked on poli-



UTRECHT.

tics as a very amusing game, which was particularly amusing if it brought riches and power to himself.

8. The Peace of Utrecht.—The first thought of the new ministers was to make peace with France. It was quite right that

they should do this ; for France had become so weak by its many defeats that nothing more was to be gained by war. In 1713 the Treaty of Utrecht was signed. The Archduke Charles, who had failed to conquer Spain, was now Emperor and ruler of the Austrian dominions ; and he was allowed to add to his other territories the Spanish lands in Italy and the Netherlands. Philip V., the grandson of Lewis XIV., kept Spain itself and the Spanish colonies in America and elsewhere.

9. The Last Days of Queen Anne.—Besides making peace, the new ministers had been doing all they could against the Dissenters. Parliament had, at last, made a law against Occasional Conformity ; and, a little later, it made another law, called the *Schism Act*, by which no one was allowed to keep a school without license from the bishop,—the object of which was to prevent the Dissenters from having schools of their own. The Tories, however, were in the same difficulty which James II. had been in. Just as James had known, that whatever he did would be undone as soon as he died, by his daughter Mary,—so the Tories knew, that whatever they did, would be undone whenever Anne died. By law, Anne's heir was the Electress Sophia ; and

when she died, in 1714, her son George, Elector of Hanover, succeeded to her right. The Tories knew that George would favour the Whigs; and some of them would have been glad to change the law, and bring the son of James II.—the Pretender as he was usually called—to reign after Anne. If the Pretender had been a Protestant, this would perhaps have been done; but as he was not, the Tories could not make up their minds to have a Catholic king. Before they could resolve what to do, the Queen died.

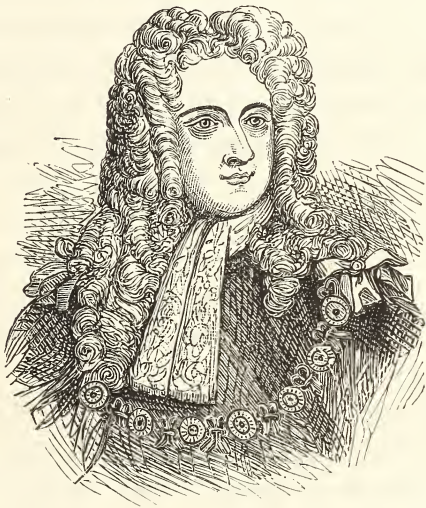
CHAPTER XXXV.

THE REIGNS OF THE FIRST TWO GEORGES TO THE DEATH OF HENRY PELHAM.

(GEORGE I. 1714—GEORGE II. 1727—DEATH OF HENRY
PELHAM, 1754.)

1. The First Years of George I.—The new King sent away the Tory ministers, and put Whig ministers in their places. In 1715, the Jacobites rose against the Government in the North of England and in Scotland. The Pretender himself landed in Scotland. He was a slow and inactive man, and made a very bad

soldier; so that no one felt much interest in him. The insurrection was put down, and the Pretender had to go back again to the Continent. The Whig Government had everything its own way. It abrogated the laws which had been made in Anne's reign against the



GEORGE I.

Dissenters; and some of the Whigs talked of putting an end to the Test Act, as far as the Dissenters were concerned, and allowing them to hold offices. The Whigs who proposed this soon found that it would make them very unpopular. The greater part of the English people did not know much, or care much,

about politics, but they had strong prejudices ; and they fancied that, if the Dissenters had power, they would behave in the way in which the Puritans had behaved in the time of Cromwell. Just at the time, however, when this matter was talked of, the Whig ministers who were then in office were driven out of it by an affair which had nothing to do with politics.

2. The South Sea Bubble.—In consequence of the peace which had followed the Treaty of Utrecht, there was more trade than there had been before ; and many people who had a little money, began to think that they had only to spend it on trade to make themselves rich. They began to form companies for trade ; and some of these companies did good work, and brought profits to the shareholders. Others were originated by ignorant or knavish men, only in order to get money for themselves out of the pockets of people who were foolish enough to believe them. One of the most popular companies was the South Sea Company. It had been formed to carry on trade in South America, and it might have gained a profit there. But people fancied that its profit would be enormous ; and large numbers paid for the right of joining in the company a great deal more than it was worth.

At one time they were ready to give 1,000*l.* for such a share in the company as had at first been worth only 100*l.*, and which was probably never worth more than that. By-and-by these people found out that they had been deluded, and had to sell for less than it was worth, what they had bought for more than it was worth. Of course they were very angry ; and, as some of the ministers had been bribed by the people who managed the company to give them support in Parliament, there was a great outcry against them. One of the ministers was sent to the Tower. Another poisoned himself from shame and grief.

3. Sir Robert Walpole, Prime Minister.—A new ministry was formed, of which the chief member was Sir Robert Walpole. He was a Whig like the last ministers, but he was careful not to do anything which would rouse opposition. He was the first man who was called a Prime Minister in England. In the time of William III. and Anne, the King or Queen had been in the habit of being present at the meetings of the Cabinet, and of listening to the advice of the ministers there. George I., however, could not talk English well enough to take an interest in the discussions

of his ministers ; and none of his ministers could talk German. He therefore stayed away ; and none of the kings since has ever been present at a meeting of the Cabinet. When the King ceased to come, it was necessary that some one should take the first place ; and in this way grew up the practice of having one minister, called a Prime Minister, who is superior to the rest.

4. Parliamentary Corruption.—Walpole understood business very well ; and he understood how to manage the members of the House of Commons. Many of them would not vote as the ministers wished unless they were bribed ; and Walpole was quite ready to bribe them. At that time no one, unless he were a member of the House, knew how a member spoke or voted. Newspapers were not allowed to publish the speeches in Parliament, or to tell how any vote had been given. The consequence was that a member could sell his vote, because none of those who had elected him would know anything of what he had done. Very few of them would have cared much about the matter if they had known. When election time came, they knew that the candidates gave them money for their votes, and plenty of beer without asking them

to pay for it ; and that was all that most of them thought of.

5. Walpole and the Excise Bill.—In 1727 George I. died, and was succeeded by his son George II. Walpole remained Prime Minister. There was beginning to be an opposition against him in the House of Commons. Some members opposed him, because he had turned them out of office, or, because he would not bribe them enough. There were others, too, who opposed him because they did not like seeing bribes given. He had the advantage over his opponents for a long time, not only because he had the money of the nation to give away, but because he never did anything imprudent. Once he proposed an Excise Bill to enable Government to get money by an excise levied upon goods when they are ready to be sold ; instead of getting it by customs, levied on goods when they are brought into the country. In this way he hoped to put an end to smuggling. Every one now thinks that this would have been a great improvement. But the people took it into their heads, that it would be very tyrannical if officers came into their shops and houses to see what was there for sale ; and they fancied that they would have to pay

more for what they bought, than they had paid before. Walpole knew that this would not really be so ; but, when he saw how excited the people were, he preferred to give up his proposal, rather than take the chance of open resistance. He thought that no improvement was worth the risk of an insurrection.

6. Walpole and the War with Spain.—Some time after this, the people again became excited. This time it was about a quarrel with Spain. In those days no country liked to allow freedom of trade ; and colonies were not permitted to buy or sell, unless when they traded with persons coming from the mother-country to which they belonged. In the Treaty of Utrecht, however, Spain had been obliged to promise that one English ship only in the year might sell goods to the Spanish colonies in South America. The English had not kept strictly to their part of the bargain. One great English ship came near the shore, and the goods on board were unloaded in the day-time. But she was accompanied by several smaller vessels which remained out of sight of land ; and which came up in the night-time and filled up, with fresh goods, the space in the large ship which had been emptied the day before. Besides

this trickery, there was a great deal of smuggling going on. English vessels sailed to the West Indies to put their goods on shore whenever they could escape the notice of the Spanish coastguards. Of course, the coastguards were very angry, and did not treat the English smugglers very well when they caught them. One day a man named Jenkins appeared before the House of Commons, and produced one of his ears out of a box where it was wrapped up in cotton. He said that it had been cut off by the Spaniards in the West Indies, and that they had bidden him to carry it to his King. Many people believe that this story was untrue, and that he had lost his ear in the pillory. Whether it were true or not, England was enraged. Parliament and people called on Walpole to go to war with Spain. Walpole believed that this was unjust; but he weakly consented to do what he was asked to do. When war was declared, the bells rang loudly for joy. 'They are ringing the bells now,' said the Prime Minister; 'they will be wringing their hands soon.'

7. Fall of Walpole.—To make war when he knew that it was unjust, was the worst thing that Walpole ever did. It was also the

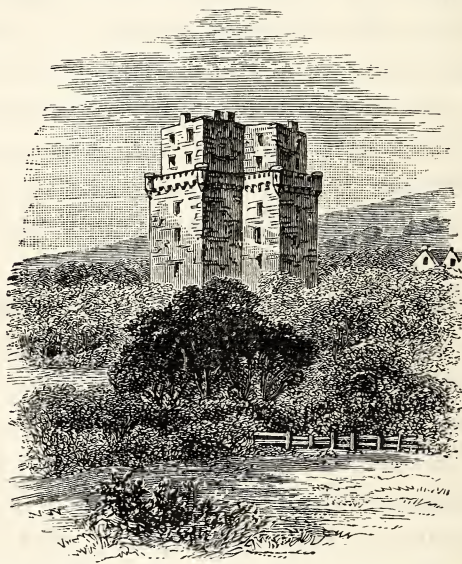
most unfortunate thing for himself. It would have been better for him if he had been honest ; and if he had resigned, rather than do what he thought wrong, he would probably have been asked before long to take office again. As it happened, the war did not go on as well as people thought that it ought ; and they threw the blame on Walpole. They said, that he did not take any trouble about it, because he did not like it. At last the opposition grew so strong that he was obliged to resign ; and, in 1742, his long ministry came to an end.

8. The Ministry of the Pelhams.—After Walpole had been turned out, there was a new set of ministers ; but they bribed the members of Parliament just as much as Walpole had done. After a short time the leading ministers were two brothers. The younger, Henry Pelham, was Prime Minister. He was a very good man of business, and managed to keep the House of Commons quiet, by giving office to everybody who could speak well, without caring what his principles were. For this reason his ministry was known as the ‘Broad-bottomed Administration.’ The elder brother, the Duke of Newcastle, was very ignorant, but he knew how to keep people who had votes in Parlia-

ment in a good humour. Every day his rooms were filled with men who wanted something. One wished his brother or son to be made a bishop or a general. Another had some poor friend, for whom he wanted a clerkship or some lower office. Newcastle gave offices to some and civil speeches to every one. By obliging people in this way, he got many votes for the Government, though he was himself very ridiculous. He was always in a bustle ; and it was said of him, that he seemed to have got up half an hour too late every morning, and to be running about all day to try to catch it.

9. The Young Pretender in Scotland.—In 1745,—after Henry Pelham had been in office for a short time,—Charles Edward, the *Young Pretender*, as he was called in England, landed in the Highlands of Scotland. He was the son of the Old Pretender, who called himself James III. of England and James VIII. of Scotland ; and, as his father was still alive, he called himself Prince of Wales. The Highlanders were quite ready to join him, and he soon found himself able to march at their head to Edinburgh. Many of the people of Edinburgh were much pleased to see him. Scotland had prospered since the

union with England, but the people of Edinburgh did not forget that there was no Parliament meeting in their city any longer ; and, that the members went up to London to spend their money, instead of spending it in the Scottish capital. Charles Edward, too,



PRESTON TOWER, NEAR THE SITE OF THE BATTLE.

was a brisk and handsome young man, and that always counts for something. The Prince, however, could not stay long in Edinburgh, as an English army was coming against him, and was at Preston Pans, a few miles east of Edinburgh. He therefore

marched to attack them there. The Highlanders fought as they had fought at Killiecrankie. They rushed upon the English soldiers with their broadswords flashing, and swept them away. The victory of the Highlanders was complete in a few minutes. The conquerors plundered the slain, and often did not know the value of the things which they found in the pockets of the Englishmen. One Highlander took a watch, and, when he heard it ticking, he fancied that it was alive. As he did not wind it up, it soon ceased to tick. He then sold it for very little, and thought that he had made a good bargain. 'I was glad,' he said, 'to be rid of the creature ; for she lived no time after I caught her.'

10. The Young Pretender in England.—The Pretender resolved to try whether he could not win England as he had won Scotland. He crossed the Border and marched steadily southwards, hoping that his father's old friends would rise to support him. But there were few of his father's friends left. England was well off, and did not want a change. Men could not be very enthusiastic on behalf of George II., and still less about Newcastle ; but even those who did not care anything about politics, knew that the

country was much better off under the kings of the House of Hanover, than it had been under James II. As soon as it appeared that Englishmen would not rise for Charles Edward, it became quite certain that he would have to go back. He and his Highlanders could not conquer England. He reached Derby, and found that if he went on further he would soon be surrounded by George's armies. Sadly he turned his face northwards, and reached Scotland again in a miserable plight.

11. Falkirk and Culloden.—Charles Edward had one more success. He fought a battle at Falkirk. The English general, Hawley, despised his enemy, because the Highlanders did not understand the drill of the regular soldiers; and so he got well beaten. The King's son, the Duke of Cumberland, was sent to Scotland to see whether he could not do better than Hawley. Charles Edward wanted to remain to fight him; but his chief officers told him that his army was not large enough, and that he had better retreat northwards. Cumberland followed him. When the English army reached Nairn, the Prince was at Culloden, about twelve miles off. The Highlanders determined to try to surprise Cumberland's

army in its sleep. They started in the evening and marched all night. They had to pass over a rough and boggy moor; and the wearied men found it impossible to push on fast enough, in the dark, to reach the enemy's camp before daylight. They struggled back to Culloden. The next day Cumberland was upon them. Charles Edward ordered his Highlanders to charge. They dashed upon the soldiers and drove back the first line. The second line stood firm, and received them with a steady fire. The bold warriors in the tartan kilts wavered. Then they broke and fled. Discipline had at last shown, as it has often shown, that it is too strong for undisciplined valour. Cumberland had won a victory. But he disgraced the English name by the use which he made of it. The Highlanders were treated worse than vermin are treated by the farmer. After the battle the soldiers knocked the wounded on the head. Several of the wounded men had taken refuge in a cottage. The soldiers shut the door fast, set the house on fire, and burnt the wretched men alive. Prisoners taken were sent in great numbers to execution. Three Scotch noblemen were beheaded on Tower Hill. It was the last time that the axe and block were used in

England. To the day of his death, the general who had won the day, was known as 'The Butcher Cumberland.'

12. The Escape of Charles Edward.—The Prince himself escaped. He wandered about for five months amongst the hills and islands of the Western Highlands. A lady, Flora Macdonald, took him under her special care, concealed him when danger was near, and aided his flight. Sometimes he was disguised as a servant, sometimes as a woman. Of the many who knew him, not one would betray him to his enemies. At last he escaped in a French vessel. He lived for many years on the Continent—a broken-hearted man, without hope and without employment for his energy. He sank into dissipation and vice. In Scotland he has never been forgotten. To this day songs in honour of 'Prince Charlie' are sung there, which were composed by a lady many years later, but which tell the thoughts which were once in so many Scottish hearts. Now that Scotchmen are all loyal to their Queen and country, they can still sing that,

Charlie is my darling,
My darling, my darling,
Charlie is my darling,
The young chevalier.

13. The Death of Henry Pelham.—Henry Pelham lived for eight years after the battle of Culloden, doing his business quietly and offending nobody. He died in 1754. ‘Now,’ said the old King, ‘I shall have no more peace.’ The old King spoke truly.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE LAST SIX YEARS OF GEORGE II.

(1754–1760.)

1. Englishmen spread over the World.—The wars which England had hitherto waged, had been waged for power on the Continent of Europe. The nation had striven to conquer France, in the days of Edward III. and Henry V.; to resist the enormous strength of Spain, in the reign of Elizabeth; and the enormous strength of France, in the reigns of William III. and Anne. For some time, however, Englishmen had been spreading over the world. They had gone forth to trade and to colonise; and, before the end of the reign of George II., England was at war with France, not on account of anything that had happened in Europe, but on account

of things which had happened in America and Asia.

2. English and French in America.—In the time of James I. and Charles I., Englishmen had gone to live in that part of the American Continent which is now known as the United States. Some of them who had gone to the southern part went, just as people now go to Australia or Canada, because they wanted to have land of their own to cultivate. Those who went to New England, in the North, went because they were Puritans, and wanted to be allowed to live and to worship God in their own way without interference. The descendants of these men had increased and multiplied; and there were, in the middle of the reign of George II., thirteen colonies, full of prosperous people, managing their own affairs, but each having at its head a Governor appointed by the King of England. They all lived along the Atlantic coast, and it was only very occasionally that any one of them crossed the Alleghany mountains. Those who did, found a vast plain, the northern part of which is watered by the River Ohio, and the streams which fall into it. The country was covered with forests, in which were Indians, who hunted the fur-covered

animals which abounded there, and sold the furs to Europeans. Most of these Indians were not friendly to the English, who would cut down their woods, and plough up their lands, if they could come into possession of them. At that time Lower Canada belonged to the French ; and, as the French did not want to cultivate the land on the Ohio, the Indians were on very good terms with them, and sold their furs to them. Even before the death of Pelham, there had been some fighting going on between the English and French ; and General Braddock had been sent to protect the English. He was a brave but stupid man, like General Hawley. Officers in those days were appointed not because they understood how to lead an army, but because they were the friends of Newcastle, or of some one whose vote Newcastle wanted to gain. Braddock marched on, till he came to a place where the French and Indians surrounded him in the forest ; and he and most of his men were shot down from behind the trees.

3. Beginning of the Seven Years' War.—After that, there could be no continuance of peace with France. The two nations were, in reality, contending for all that vast country which stretches from the Alleghany moun-

tains to the Pacific. Whichever of the two gained its object, would some day occupy almost all the territory which now belongs to the United States. The war would decide whether French or English was to be spoken on the banks of the Mississippi and the shores of California. But England and France did not know this ; they only knew that they were fighting for the possession of the forests at the head of the Ohio. The war, which began in 1756 and lasted till 1763, is known as the *Seven Years' War*.

4. Newcastle driven from Office.—Newcastle was now Prime Minister. He was quite ignorant how to manage a war. At that time Minorca in the Mediterranean belonged to England. It was attacked by a French fleet and army. Admiral Byng went to take help to it, but he thought that the French were too strong, and came back without fighting. Minorca was taken by the enemy. People in England were enraged. They thought that Byng was a coward, and cried out to have him punished. Newcastle was horribly frightened. He thought that the people would ask to have himself punished next. 'Oh,' he cried out to some persons who came to ask him to have the Admiral tried ;

‘indeed, he shall be tried immediately—he shall be hanged directly.’ Byng was tried, and shot. A witty Frenchman said that it was the custom in England to shoot an admiral to encourage the others. Before Byng was condemned, Newcastle resigned his office. He loved it dearly, but he was too frightened to keep it any longer.

5. Pitt in Office.—There was a man in the House of Commons who had more confidence in himself. William Pitt had kept himself pure, when every one around him had been giving or taking bribes. He had confidence in his countrymen as well. He knew how brave they were ; and he thought that, if they had good leaders, they would be sure to beat the French. ‘I know,’ he once said, ‘that I can save this country, and that nobody else can.’ He became immediately the most popular minister who had ever held office. He was known as the *Great Commoner*. But the corrupt members of Parliament, who wanted a minister who would buy their votes, did not like him at all ; and they voted against him. He was obliged to resign. Then many weeks passed, during which there was no ministry at all. Newcastle could not bear to let Pitt be minister, and he was too much

afraid of the people to try to manage the war himself. At last it was arranged that Newcastle and Pitt should be ministers together. Pitt was to manage the war, and Newcastle was to manage the bribery.

6. Wolfe's Expedition to Canada.—Pitt succeeded in managing the war, because he appointed men who had done well in command of small forces, to command great ones ; because he made every one understand that the surest way to his favour was to succeed ; and because he never favoured any one only because he was rich, or related to some great man. He sent money to Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, who was at war with France, and with many other countries besides. He sent out regiments to attack places in France, and fleets and armies to attack the French settlements in America. At last he sent General Wolfe to take Quebec, the French capital of Canada. Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence, and found that Quebec was not at all an easy place to take. It lies between two rivers, the St. Lawrence and the St. Charles, and a great part of it is on a high ridge of hills looking down on the rivers with steep cliffs on either side. Outside the city is a lofty place known as the ' Heights of Abraham ;' and for some

miles the cliffs at its edges are as steep as they are at the city. The French commander Montcalm was a brave and skilful man. He



would not fight a battle, but he took care to place his men where Wolfe could not attack them, or pass by them so as to get near

Quebec. Wolfe wrote home in despair. He did not think that there was any chance that he would be able to do anything.

7. The Capture of Quebec and the Death of Wolfe.—Five days after this letter was written, he resolved to make one desperate attempt. Placing his soldiers in boats in the dark night, he floated noiselessly down the river. He repeated to his officers some beautiful lines of a poem which had been published by Gray some years before. One of these lines was,

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

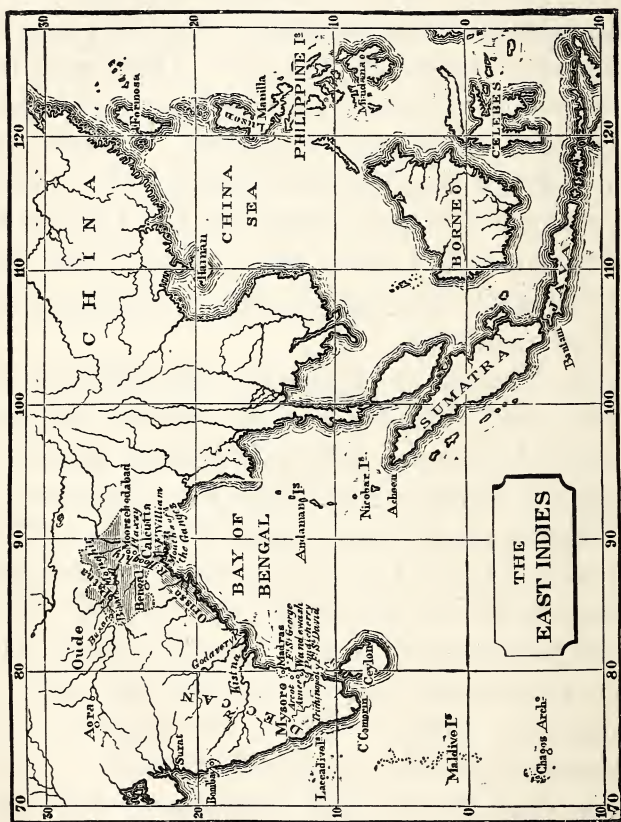
‘Now, gentlemen,’ he said, ‘I would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec!’ At last the boats reached the point at the foot of the cliffs for which they had been steering. The men leapt on shore. Above them was a narrow zig-zag path winding up in the darkness amongst the precipitous rocks,—so narrow, that in some places two men could not stand on it side by side. The soldiers clambered up. When they reached the top, the Frenchmen were so astonished to see them coming up the cliff that they ran off. Before more had time to arrive, the British army was drawn up on the plain. Montcalm came out of the city with the French army. In the

battle both Wolfe and Montcalm were killed. As Wolfe lay dying, he heard an officer cry 'See how they run !' Wolfe roused himself to ask, 'Who run ?' When he heard it was the enemy he was satisfied. 'God be praised,' he said ; 'I shall die happy.' These were his last words. Quebec gave itself up ; and before long all Canada was conquered. French and English are happily good friends now ; and a monument has been erected on the Heights of Abraham which bears the names of both the commanders who died there, each fighting for his own country.

8. Victory at Quiberon.—Englishmen in Pitt's days fought as well by sea as they fought by land. Admiral Hawke sailed to attack a French fleet near the peninsula of Quiberon, on the west coast of France. The French ships fled for safety to the rocks and shoals at the mouth of the river Vilaine. The wind was blowing hard. Hawke's pilot told him it was not safe to venture into such a dangerous place. 'Lay me alongside the French Admiral,' answered Hawke. 'You have done your duty, but now obey my orders.' Hawke dashed in amongst the rocks. Four of the French fleet were sunk, two surrendered, and the rest fled up a river.

9. English and French in India.—There

were victories in India as well as in America. At the end of the reign of Elizabeth, the East India Company had been formed to



trade with India. In the reign of Charles I. the Company bought some land at Madras, and built a fort on it. In the reign of

Charles II. it obtained Bombay from the king, who had received it from the King of Portugal on his marriage with Catharine of Braganza. In the reign of William III. an English fort was built on the Hooghly, round which sprang up the town of Calcutta. Only these three towns belonged to the English, who wanted to trade, not to conquer. The rest of India was governed by native princes. About the time when the Young Pretender was fighting in Scotland, there began a contest between the English and French in the part of India near Madras. The French for some time got the better. The French governor Dupleix was a skilful man, and managed to secure the friendship of some of the natives, and to defeat those who opposed him. He was the first to drill native soldiers, or Sepoys as they were called, in the European fashion. He was so proud of his success that he built a town and called it by an Indian name, which meant 'The City of the Victory of Dupleix.'

10. Clive at Arcot.—In Madras there was a young English clerk, named Robert Clive. He was not a man to be easily frightened. One day he accused an officer, with whom he was playing cards, with cheating. A duel was

fought, and Clive missed the man at whom he fired. His antagonist came up to him and held his pistol at his head, bidding him acknowledge that his accusation had been false. 'Fire,' said Clive, without shrinking; 'I said you cheated, I say so still, and I will never pay you.' The officer threw down his pistol, saying that Clive was mad. Clive was not mad. Not long afterwards, there was a call for soldiers, and Clive offered to serve as one. He was sent to seize Arcot, a fortified town not far off, which belonged to a native prince, who was friendly to the French. When Clive approached the place a thunderstorm came on. The garrison of Arcot expected that Clive would stop to take shelter. When they saw that he marched on in spite of the weather, they were so astonished that they all ran away, and left Arcot to him. Before long a great army was sent to besiege him there. He fought desperately, but he was all but starved out. Nothing but rice was left to feed on, and there was not much of that. Clive, like Dupleix, had Sepoys with him. Some of these faithful men came to him and begged that all the rice might be given to his English soldiers. The natives, they said, did not need so much nourishment as Europeans did, and the water

in which the rice had been boiled would be enough for them. Clive's brave resistance saved him in the end. A native chief, who had been paid to help the English, had for some time kept away. When he heard how Arcot was being defended, he ordered his men to march. 'I never thought till now,' he said, 'that the English could fight ; but since they can, I will help them.' With this help Clive was successful ; and the besiegers gave up trying to take Arcot. The English troops got the better of the French ; and not long afterwards Clive returned to England.

11. The Black Hole of Calcutta.—For some little time there was peace between the French and English. When the Seven Years' War began, Clive was sent out again. The first news which reached him on his arrival was sad enough. A native prince named Surajah Dowlah ruled in Bengal. He knew that the English merchants at Calcutta were rich, and he seized Calcutta and all the English in it. He ordered them to be thrust into a very small room measuring only eighteen feet one way and fifteen the other. Into this place, known afterwards as 'The Black Hole of Calcutta,' a hundred and forty-five Englishmen and one Englishwoman were driven. It was

in the heat of the day,—and the day is far hotter in India than it ever is in the hottest summer in England. So hot and close was it that those who were within, soon knew that but few of them would come out alive. They called for water, and, when some was brought in skins, these skins were too large to be thrust in through the bars of the window. The prisoners struggled madly for the smallest drop, trampling one another down to reach it. The guards outside laughed cruelly at the sight. All through that day, and the night which followed, men were dying in agony. When the morning came, and the door was opened, of the hundred and forty-six who had entered, only twenty-three, almost as pale as corpses, staggered out alive.

12. The Battle of Plassey.—Clive soon arrived to avenge his countrymen. He had with him three thousand soldiers. Surajah Dowlah had fifty thousand. In spite of these enormous odds, Clive attacked him at Plassey. Part of the army of the enemy deserted in the middle of the battle. The rest fled with very little resistance. From the example of that day English armies have learned to face any odds in India. Step by step they have overcome all resistance. India

has been brought in the course of years under English rule. India has had peace given to it. The native princes who remain in some parts are not allowed to plunder and slaughter their neighbours. The English governors of India have still a hard task before them, to rule justly and wisely for the benefit of the natives, and to teach them, if it be possible, to govern themselves.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. TO THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR.

(1760-1783.)

1. Peace with France.—George II. died suddenly, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III. The young King was anxious to make peace with France. Pitt discovered that the Spaniards wanted to join the French, and proposed to declare war against Spain. The King and the other ministers refused to do so, and Pitt resigned. After all, Spain did join France, and in the war that followed the Spaniards were beaten as much as the

French had been. However, peace was made in 1763, seven years after the war had begun. England kept Canada.

2. The Stamp Act.—Even before the peace was made, George III. tried to get rid of the Whigs. He had set his heart on naming the ministers whom he liked to name; and not the ministers whom the great Whig noblemen asked him to name. He found out that he could gain votes by giving offices away, especially if the offices were well paid, and if, as often happened, the officers had nothing to do. Still, it was a long time before he got his way. After a little time he was obliged to accept as Prime Minister, George Grenville, who was a Whig, whom he very much disliked. Grenville was a conscientious man, but not a wise one. The last war had been very expensive, and Grenville thought that he could make the Americans pay some of the expense. He therefore persuaded the English Parliament to pass a Stamp Act, ordering the Americans to pay money for stamps to be put on all their law papers as they are now in England. The Americans grew very angry, and declared that the English Parliament had no right to tax them. Before it was known in England how angry they were, the King

had turned Grenville out of office. Grenville was succeeded by Lord Rockingham, who was now leader of one portion of the Whigs. The Whigs who were led by Rockingham were never very popular. They would not bribe; and so all who wanted to be bribed turned against them. They offended others because they did not mix with the people, and did not like to have anything to do with any great changes. Rockingham himself was a well-meaning, timid man, who listened respectfully to Edmund Burke, who was the wisest man in England. When the news came of the ill-feeling in America, the Rockingham ministry advised that the Stamp Act should be repealed. As soon as the English Parliament left off taxing the Americans, the Americans again became quiet and loyal.

3. The Tea Duties.—The King did not like Rockingham any better than he had liked Grenville, and turned him out. He made Pitt Prime Minister, and created him Earl of Chatham. Chatham's ministry might have been a splendid one if he had remained in health; but he soon became so ill that he was unable to attend to business. The other ministers did as they pleased, and were foolish enough to try to tax America again. This

time they persuaded Parliament to place duties on tea and other articles going into America. Parliament did not need much persuasion. Most English people thought that the Americans ought to pay more taxes than they did, and were glad to make them pay whether they liked it or not. The Americans again grew angry ; but this time there was no Rockingham ministry to be wise enough to take away the duties.

4. Wilkes and the Middlesex Election.—The fact was, that the House of Commons only thought of making people do as it pleased ; just as Charles I. had only thought of making people do as he pleased. At home the Middlesex electors chose a man named Wilkes as their member of Parliament. His character was not good ; and some years before, he had made the King very angry, by finding fault with the King's speech at the opening of Parliament. As soon as he was elected, the House of Commons expelled him. The Middlesex electors chose him a second time ; and the House of Commons expelled him again. The Middlesex electors chose him a third time ; and then the House of Commons declared that another candidate, who had received very few votes, was properly chosen,

and allowed him to sit in the House instead of Wilkes. Soon after this Chatham got well again. He declared, in the House of Lords, that the House of Commons had no right to do what it had done ; and he also declared, that an English Parliament had no right to tax America.



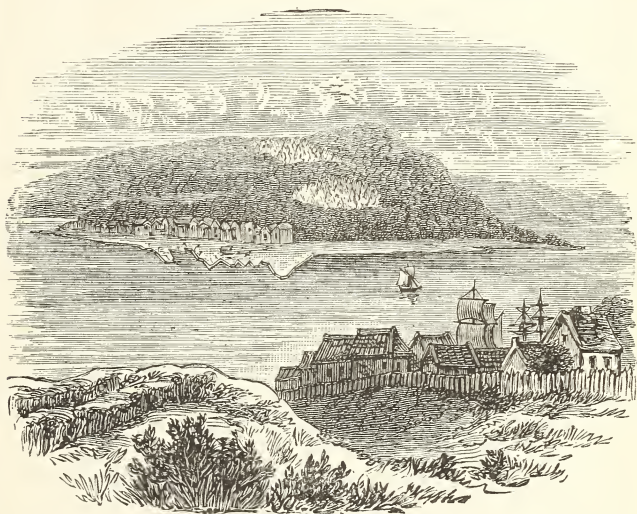
LORD NORTH.

5. Throwing of Tea into Boston Harbour.—

The King would not listen to Chatham's good advice. He made Lord North Prime Minister. Lord North was one of those men who were now called Tories. They were different in many ways from the Tories of the reign of Anne. They thought that the King, and not

the great Whig noblemen, ought to choose the ministers. Lord North was a sensible man, but he allowed himself to be persuaded to do whatever the King told him to do. He was very fat, and used to go to sleep in the House of Commons when the members were abusing him in their speeches. When he was awake he was fond of making jokes ; and he never lost his temper. Some time afterwards a large quantity of tea was sent to Boston. The inhabitants determined that it should not be landed ; because they were afraid lest, if it were allowed to come on shore, some people might be tempted to buy it, and so to pay the duty to the British Government. They asked the governor to allow the ship which brought the tea to go back to England. As soon as it was known that he had refused, about forty or fifty men, disguised as Red Indians, rushed down to the quay. They leapt on board the ship, split open the tea-chests, and emptied their contents into the harbour. When the news of what had been done reached England, the King and the ministers were extremely angry. They got Parliament to pass a law forbidding any ships to take in cargo, or to unload cargo at Boston ; and another law providing that the colony of Massachusetts,

in which Boston was, should be governed by persons appointed by the King. Chatham and Burke did all they could to stop the making of these laws ; but it was all in vain. Soldiers were sent out to force the colonists to obey the orders of the British Parliament.

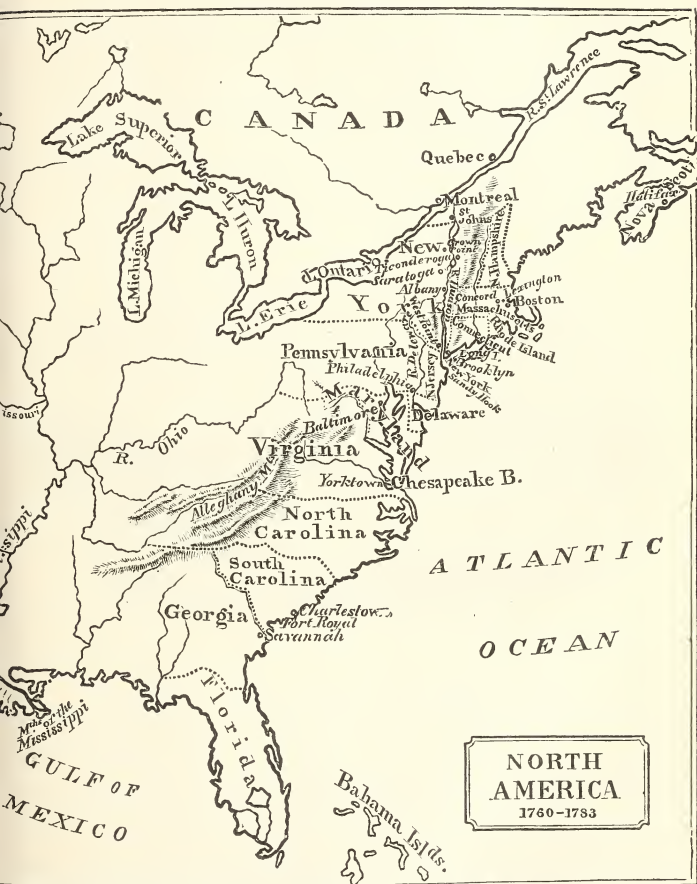


BUNKER'S HILL.

6. The Beginning of the American War.—The Americans prepared to resist. They elected a Congress, in which persons chosen by the different colonies might meet to decide what was to be done. In 1775 fighting began. A British force, marching to seize some arms, was attacked ; and many of the soldiers were

killed. The first serious fighting was on a hill near Boston, called Braid's Hill,—though the battle is usually known as that of Bunker's Hill, which is a height in the same range. The British troops attempted twice to ascend the hill. Twice they were driven back with great slaughter. The third time they were successful, as the Americans had used nearly all their powder and shot, and were obliged to retreat. The British general wrote home, saying, that he had now found out that the rebels were not 'the despicable rabble too many have supposed them to be.' In spite of this, the English people thought that the war would soon be over. They were many, and the Americans were few. Their soldiers were well disciplined, and the Americans had no regular soldiers at all. But the Americans were fighting for their own land, and for their liberty. Before long they issued their Declaration of Independence, declaring that they were a free nation, and would submit to King George no longer. The Americans had a difficult battle to fight. They were sometimes victorious, and sometimes beaten. The British forces seized on New York, and kept it to the end of the war. After that the Americans surrounded a British army under General

Burgoyne at Saratoga, and forced it to surrender. They had a great man to lead them,



George Washington. He was not merely a good general, but he was patient and modest,

utterly regardless of himself, and ready to suffer anything rather than injure his country. Yet, after two years of war, in spite of all Washington's heroism, the American army was almost starved to death. The horses died for want of forage ; and for six days, the men had no meat. There was scarcely a pair of shoes to be found in the whole camp.



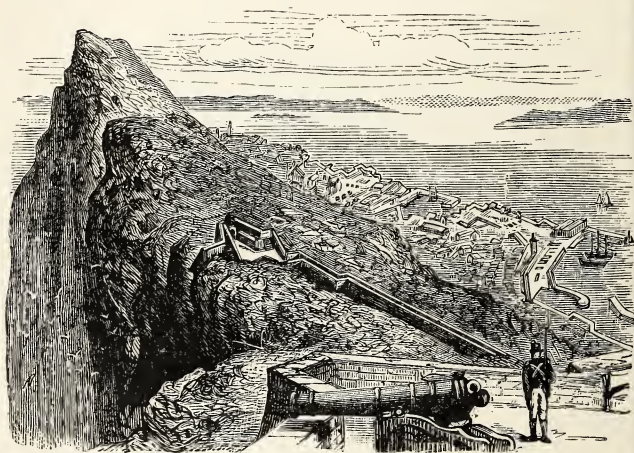
NEW YORK.

7. The Alliance between America and France.—Help came to the Americans from France. The French had not forgotten how the English had treated them in the last war ; and they were glad to find an opportunity of taking their revenge. They engaged to make war with England till America was acknowledged to be independent. Lord North was

frightened, and offered to do anything that the Americans wished, if they would not ask for independence. Chatham himself could not make up his mind to agree to that. He was old and ill, and he went to the House of Lords to call on Englishmen not to give way before France. 'As long,' he said, 'as I can crawl down to this House, and have strength to raise myself on my crutches, or lift my hand, I will vote against giving up the dependency of America on the sovereignty of Great Britain.' The Peers listened respectfully, but they could hardly hear his words. He was not what he once had been. He repeated the same sentences and could not recollect what he had intended to say. After an answer had been given him, he rose to speak again. He staggered and fell, struck down by apoplexy. His son and son-in-law—the son the young William Pitt who was one day to be Prime Minister—hastened to carry him away. In a few days he died.

8. The End of the War.—If Chatham had been living, and had been ruling England, he could not have stopped the Independence of America. Fighting went on, and Spain joined France and America. At last an English army, under Lord Cornwallis, was shut up in

Yorktown. The Americans hemmed it in on the land side, and a French fleet blocked it up by sea. Cornwallis was forced to surrender. When the bad news reached England in 1782, every one knew that it was no use to struggle longer. Lord North gave up his office, and Rockingham again became Prime Minister.



GIBRALTAR.

Besides giving offices to his own followers, he gave some to the chief men amongst Chatham's followers, of whom the principal was Lord Shelburne. Before peace was made, Admiral Rodney gained a great victory over the French by sea ; and a large French and Spanish fleet, which was trying to take Gibraltar, had to give

up the attempt in despair. Before Gibraltar was freed, Rockingham died ; and the King named Shelburne to succeed him. Shelburne made arrangements for peace, though the actual treaty was not signed till after he had left office. In 1783, the Independence of America was acknowledged in the treaty. ✓

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

FROM THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

(1783-1789.)

1. Shelburne turned out of Office.—Lord Shelburne did not remain Prime Minister long. The friends of Rockingham in the ministry did not like him ; and they thought that the King had no right to choose the Prime Minister. Their leader, now that Rockingham was dead, was Charles James Fox ; who was one of the ministers under Lord Shelburne. Fox was a great orator, and the most amiable of men. He had, however, quarrelled with Shelburne ; and he and his friends resigned their posts rather than hold office under him. They were no sooner out of office, than they wanted to get back again ; and, though they were

Whigs, they actually went so far as to make an agreement with the Tory North and his friends, to attack Shelburne. All through the American War, Fox had been speaking all kinds of evil of North ; so that the friendship which was thus suddenly made, was not likely to be respected. The two parties, however, which were led by Fox and North, had, together, more votes in the House of Commons than the party led by Shelburne. They therefore succeeded in turning him out ; and a new ministry was formed, which is known as the *Coalition Ministry*, because Fox's friends coalesced, or joined together, with those of North.

2. The Contest between Pitt and the Coalition Ministry.—The Coalition Ministry did not last long. It proposed a law about the government of India, which offended a great many people ; and the King turned it out of office. The King appointed young William Pitt, the son of Chatham, to be Prime Minister. No one so young as he was, had ever been Prime Minister before. He was only twenty-four. Fox and North had many more votes in the House of Commons than he had, and the House voted that he ought to resign. He told them that he would not,

unless they could show that he had done something wrong. Week after week, the numbers who voted for him, grew more ; and the numbers who voted against him, grew less. There were, at that time, a large number of members of Parliament who would vote for anybody who was likely to remain in office ; because they expected to get offices for themselves and their friends, which would bring them money ; and they did not care the least whether the thing for which they voted was right or wrong. These men began to think that Pitt was likely to win ; and one reason why they thought this was, because people who were not members of Parliament had begun to take an interest in him. Quiet people, who did not care much about politics, thought that the friendship between men who had not long ago been quarrelling,—as Fox and North had quarrelled,—could not possibly have been formed in order to do good to any one but themselves. At last Pitt advised the King to dissolve Parliament. A new Parliament was elected, in which Pitt had a large majority.

3. Pitt and Public Opinion.—This support, given by the voters to the young minister, was a thing which could not have happened

thirty years before. The feeling of those people who cared about politics, had been just as strong in favour of Chatham at the beginning of the Seven Years' War, as it was now in favour of Chatham's son. But Chatham had found that he could not keep office unless he made friends with Newcastle, and got the votes for which Newcastle paid. The reason was, because a great many more people cared about politics in Pitt's time, than had cared about them in Chatham's time. One cause of this was, that just before the American War broke out, the House of Commons allowed the speeches made by its members to be printed in newspapers ; and, in this way, many people began to take an interest in politics who had taken no interest before. There were also more people who were well off from taking part in trade, and who did not like to see the Government of England managed by a few great noblemen and their friends. A great many of the country gentlemen, too, took the side of Pitt and the King. The country gentlemen were much better fitted to take part in politics, than they had been in the days of Walpole. Those who remained at home then, had been very ignorant ; and those who became members of Parliament, usually

only thought of what they could get for their votes. Now they were better educated, read more, thought more, and were more anxious to do their duty. The party which Pitt led was called the Tory party, because it was the party which thought that the Prime Minister ought to be chosen by the King.

4. The Proposed Reform Bill and the Commercial Treaty with France.—Pitt wished to make a good many wise reforms, some of which became law, though some were rejected by the House of Commons. He proposed a Reform Bill ; that is to say, a Bill for allowing many more persons to vote at the election of members of Parliament than before ; but the House of Commons would not allow this Bill to pass. He was more successful in making a treaty with France, by which goods were to be allowed to come from one country to the other, without being subjected to very high duties. Up to that time, nations had been in the habit of thinking, that they were hurt if they bought goods made by another nation more cheaply than they could make them themselves. A great man, Adam Smith, had written a book called the ‘Wealth of Nations,’ to show that this was a mistake. Pitt had learned the lesson from him ; and he

now persuaded the English Parliament that Adam Smith's lesson was true. Nations, like men, are better off when their neighbours are better off. Pitt had a difficult task to perform in convincing Parliament that this was true. England and France had been fighting with one another for centuries ; and many people thought that they never could do anything else. Pitt told his hearers that it was weak and childish to suppose that one nation could be for ever the enemy of another. He asked that Englishmen and Frenchmen should trade together, not merely because they would both make money, but because they would become more friendly to one another.

5. **The Slave Trade.**—Pitt had room in his large mind for things of even more importance than a treaty of commerce. Ever since the days of Queen Elizabeth, Englishmen,—like men of other nations,—had been in the habit of carrying off negroes from Africa, to work as slaves in the West Indies and in other parts of America. It was calculated that, at the beginning of the reign of George III., no less than 50,000 unhappy black men were thus carried off every year, in ships belonging to the merchants of Bristol and Liverpool. About the time when Pitt became minister, a

young man, named Thomas Clarkson, gained a prize at the University of Cambridge, for writing on the question whether it was right to make slaves of others against their will. Many young men would have forgotten all about the matter as soon as they had got their prize. As Clarkson was riding home, he got off his horse, and sat down on the grass by the side of the road, asking himself what he could do to put an end to the great evil about which he had been writing. He concluded, in the end, that the best thing would be to find out facts about slavery and the slave trade, and let the English people know what horrible things were being done. For some years he used to go about among the sailors at Liverpool, asking them to tell him what they knew. It was not at all a pleasant thing to do, for the sailors were often rude to him, and treated him very badly. But he learned a good deal that he wanted to know ; and when he knew it, he published it. By-and-by, others began to inquire ; and horrible tales were told. The wretched negroes who were seized in Africa, were packed on shelves so closely that they had hardly room to breathe,—especially as they passed across the hottest part of the Atlantic. They had not nearly enough given them to

eat. In order to keep them in exercise, they were brought up on deck and flogged to make them jump about. Whenever,—as was often the case,—the voyage was longer than was expected, and there was not food enough on board, the captain picked out those who looked least strong, and threw them into the sea, to be drowned or eaten by the sharks. In the House of Commons a friend of Pitt, named Wilberforce, did all he could to persuade Parliament to prevent this wicked trade in slaves. Pitt himself spoke strongly against the trade, but he was unable to persuade the members to stop it.

6. The King's Illness and Recovery.—After Pitt had been Prime Minister for nearly five years, the King went out of his mind. It was agreed that there should be a Regent to act for him, and that the King's eldest son, who was afterwards George IV., was to be the Regent. The Prince's character was so bad, that almost every one was glad to hear that the old King was well again, and that the Prince was not to be Regent. George III. went in state to St. Paul's to return thanks for his recovery. As he was now highly popular, the streets were crowded as he passed; and at night, all London was illuminated.

He had got a minister who knew how to rule well, and who did not insult the people, as some of the ministers had done in the beginning of the reign. People were pleased to hear of the simple ways of the old King, and to be told that he liked to dine on a plain leg of mutton better than on more luxurious food. They did not think the worse of him when they laughed over a story which had been invented against him, that he had been puzzled to know how the apple got inside a dumpling. They liked him, too, because he was fond of farming.

7. **Agricultural Improvements.** — Other things, besides good government, were making the country prosperous. Men were learning how to farm, and how to manure and drain the ground ; so that corn was growing where there had been nothing but furze and heath not many years before. One plain farmer, named Bakewell, taught how it was possible to improve the breed of sheep, so that twice as many pounds of good mutton might be had from one sheep as had been had before. When the soil produced more food, more people could be fed, and the number of the population began to increase.

8. **The Bridgwater Canal.**—A people may

become better off, not merely from the increase of food, but from the increase of trade. English trade had grown very much before the reign of George III., but there were still difficulties in its way. Those who lived at a distance from the sea might be able to make articles which might be sold for a good price in foreign countries ; but, if they were at all heavy, the expense of carrying them to the seaports, to put them in vessels, was so great, that it would cost more to send them to the coast than would be repaid by even a good price. They would have to be carried on the backs of horses, or in carriers' carts. Unless some one invented a way of carrying heavy goods cheaply, many men would be without employment, who might have earned good wages by their work. The man who helped these men to work was James Brindley, a millwright. It happened that the Duke of Bridgwater had some land at Worsley, about six miles from Manchester. On that land there was a coal mine, and the inhabitants of Manchester were very much in want of coal, which was very dear. Yet, high as the price was, the expense of carrying the heavy coal in carts was so great, that it was not worth while to send it from Worsley to Manchester.

The Duke consulted Brindley, and Brindley planned a canal, which should go through tunnels under the hills, and cross rivers on high bridges. As is usually the case when anything new is proposed, many people laughed at it. One famous engineer was taken to the place where the canal was to be carried across a valley. When he was shown the place, far above his head, where the water was to flow, he said that he had often heard of 'castles in the air,' but he had never before been shown where one was to be built. Brindley persevered, and at last the canal was finished. The Manchester people got their coals cheap, and the Duke got the money for which he was now able to sell them. By-and-by his example was followed. Canals were made from one part of England to the other; and heavy goods were carried easily and cheaply along them in barges.

9. **Improvements in Spinning Machines.**—Another improvement was the introduction of machinery for spinning cotton into thread. Soon after the beginning of the reign of George III., Hargreaves invented a machine which was called the spinning-jenny. It was more dangerous, then, to invent machinery, than it is now. Workmen thought that if a

machine could do more work than several men, several men would be thrown out of work. They forgot that the machine would produce the article so cheaply that a great many more people than before would be able to afford to buy it ; and that, therefore, so much more would be wanted, that more men would be employed with the machines, than had been employed without them. Hargreaves' neighbours attacked his house, broke his machine, and forced him to fly for his life. A little later, further improvements in spinning were made by Arkwright. He, too, had trouble enough. A mob broke into his mill and burnt it down. But he was determined to succeed at all risks ; and at last he was allowed to live in peace. A further improvement was made by Crompton, who invented what is known as the mule. He was a poor weaver ; when his machine was finished, he heard that mobs were gathering to break all machines. He pulled his to pieces and hid it away. When quiet was restored, he began to spin. The yarn which he sold was better than any that had been known before. Manufacturers came round him to find out how he did it. The manufacturers were as bad as the workmen had been. They peeped in through

the windows to see what his secret was. Poor Crompton had not money enough to pay for obtaining a patent, which would have prevented any one from copying his mule. He therefore told his secret, on the promise that the manufacturers would make a subscription to reward him for his improvement. The whole of the money subscribed by them was less than 68*l*. The manufacturers gained thousands of pounds by the poor man's invention, which they had thus taken from him.

10. The Steam-Engine.—The invention of machinery for spinning, was accompanied by many other inventions in different manufactures. The most important of all was the invention of the steam-engine. For some time an attempt had been made to use steam-engines to turn wheels and for other purposes ; but they consumed so much fuel in heating the steam, that they cost too much to be of use. James Watt, of Glasgow, with patient study, discovered a way of getting over the difficulty. Watt's engines, after a little time, came into general use, for manufacturers found that they could not do without them. The invention of the steam-engine brought about one great change which Watt had not thought of. Down to this time the North of England

had been the poorest part of the country. It was more covered with wild heaths and moors than the South. The new ideas which came into men's minds were always to be found in the South before they reached the North. In the reign of Henry VI., the North fought against the Yorkists ; in the reign of Henry VIII., it fought to stop the dissolution of the monasteries ; in the reign of Elizabeth, it fought against Protestantism ; and in the reign of George I., it fought for the Pretender. All this is changed now. Steam-engines were put up and factories built where coal was cheap ; and coal is cheap in the North, because it is dug out of the ground there. These factories drew to them a large population to work in them, or to provide whatever was needed by those who worked in them. This work demanded men who were quick-witted, and the consequence is that the people in the North are far more numerous than they used to be, and that they are very intelligent and thoughtful. Some one has said, that what Lancashire thinks to-day, England will think to-morrow ; and though this may not always be the case, it is quite certain that no one would have thought of saying so two or three hundred years ago.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH
REVOLUTION TO THE PEACE OF AMIENS.

(1789-1802.)

1. Beginning of the French Revolution.—

In 1789, a few days after the King had returned thanks at St. Paul's for his recovery, the French Revolution began. For a great many years the French had been governed almost as badly as was possible. Not only had the people to pay very heavy taxes, but the taxes were not fairly laid on. Poor people had to pay, whilst rich people were let off. The rich people were favoured in all sorts of ways. Besides the taxes paid to the king, the peasants in the country had a great deal to pay to the nobles and gentlemen who lived in their country houses, and who very seldom did any good to those amongst whom they lived, in the way in which English country gentlemen often did. The King of France, Louis XVI., was a well-meaning man, but he was not wise enough to know how to set things straight. He was so much in debt, and spent so much more than he received, that he

was now obliged to call together an assembly elected by different classes of his subjects, which called itself the 'National Assembly' soon after it had met. It was not long before the National Assembly began to do things that the king did not like ; and the king then wanted to force it to do what he thought right. When this was known there was an insurrection in Paris. The people took a great fortress called the Bastille, and the king was so frightened that he let the National Assembly do as it pleased. A few months later, the mob of Paris went to the place where he lived, and brought him into Paris. After that, though he was called king still, he was really more like a prisoner than a king. The National Assembly made a great many new laws, and abolished all the payments which had been made by the peasants to the gentlemen. Some of the gentlemen were very badly treated, and of these many left the country. The king, too, tried to escape and leave the country, but he was stopped and brought back to Paris, and was treated more like a prisoner than before. In 1792, three years after the Revolution began, the Prussians and the Austrians seemed likely to help the king and the gentlemen. The French declared war

against them, and they invaded France. The people of Paris thought that the king wished the foreign armies to succeed, and there can be very little doubt that he did. They rose in insurrection, and drove him out of his palace. A new Parliament, as we should call it, named the 'National Convention,' met, declared the king to be deposed, and established a Republic. They sent the king to prison ; and, in the beginning of 1793, they tried him on the charge of favouring the enemies of France, and condemned him to death. He was executed on the guillotine, an instrument made to cut off heads quickly.

2. War between England and France.—When the French Revolution began, people in England were much pleased. They thought that the French were going to have a quiet parliamentary government like their own ; and they did not think how angry different classes of people in France were with one another, and how little likely it was, that a nation which had never had a parliamentary government before, should know at once exactly how to behave when they had it. When news came of disturbances, and insurrections, and murders, most people in England began to think that the French Revolution

was altogether bad ; and when a great many of the French gentlemen took refuge in England after losing all, or nearly all, their property, the English gentlemen were so very sorry for them that most of them were ready to go to war with France for their sake. For a long time Pitt did all he could to keep peace. He said that England ought not to go to war because it did not like the way in which another nation managed its own affairs. After the invasion of France, however, by Austria and Prussia, the French got the better of their enemies, and invaded the country which was then known as the Austrian Netherlands, and which was very much the same as that which is now known as Belgium. Pitt thought that it would be dangerous to allow France to join to itself a country so near England ; and, just as he was making up his mind that he must try to stop the French from doing this, the news came that the King of France had been executed. A feeling of horror and anger passed over almost the whole country ; and, within a few days, England and France were at war with one another.

3. English Feeling against the Revolutionists.—The mass of the English people, both rich and poor, had no wish to see the

violence of the French Revolutionists copied in England. People in general were far better off than they were in France ; and when people are well off, they do not usually rise in insurrection. But there were people, especially in the towns, who thought that there ought to be a great many changes made in the Government here ; and that a much larger number of people ought to have votes to elect members of Parliament. Some, no doubt, used very violent language, and even spoke of imitating the French Revolutionists in almost everything that they did. This language frightened the upper and middle classes ; and the House of Commons, supported by the great bulk of the nation, resolved to have nothing more to do with any changes, and to put down with violence all who joined together in asking for them. This feeling soon turned into a thorough alarm. Almost every European nation joined in the war against France. France was again invaded, and the French people grew suspicious of every one whom they imagined to wish to help the enemy, or even not to be very anxious to keep him off. Hundreds of persons were hurried off to the guillotine and beheaded, without any fair trial. This was called the ‘ Reign of

Terror,' and lasted for more than a year. In England and Scotland juries were ready to give verdicts, and judges were ready to pass the heaviest sentences, on all who were trying to urge others to ask for Parliamentary Reform ; as if they could not ask for this without wanting to bring in all the horrors which were heard of in France. Pitt persuaded Parliament to pass a law, allowing the King to imprison, without trial, those whom he suspected to be conspiring against him. Several persons were accused of high treason for very doubtful reasons. Fortunately for them, their trials were delayed till after the Reign of Terror was at an end in France. The juries were not so excited then, as they had been some months before, and they gave verdicts of 'not guilty.' After this, the excitement died away.

4. Progress of the War.—On land, the war against France did not prosper. The French reconquered the Austrian Netherlands and conquered Holland. At sea, Lord Howe defeated the French, near the mouth of the Channel, in a battle known as the *Battle of the First of June*. Then Prussia made peace with France. After a time a young French General, Napoleon Bonaparte, was sent to

Italy. He won a number of victories, and drove the Austrians out of Italy. So useless did it seem to attempt to stop the French conquests, that Pitt offered to make peace. He and the French, however, were unable to agree, and the war went on as before.

5. The Battle of St. Vincent.—The year 1797 was one of great danger for England. The Dutch and the Spaniards had joined the French ; and it was expected that their fleets would attempt to combine with the French fleet, against England. The English Admirals were ordered to keep them separate. Admiral Jervis came up with the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent. There were twenty-five Spanish ships and only fifteen English. Some of the Spanish ships were of huge size, as they had been in the days of the Armada, and one of them had four decks, and guns on each deck. The English ships were not so large, but they were better fitted out ; and the sailors on board them, thoroughly understood their work ; whilst many of the Spanish sailors had never been at sea before. Yet they were brave men, and the fight was a hard one. All the English captains fought well ; but he who fought the best, was Captain Nelson. His ship had been terribly knocked about, but he ran it

close up to a Spanish vessel, leapt on board with his men, and took it. He had scarcely got possession, when the ship of the Spanish Admiral fired upon the one which Nelson had just taken. Without a moment's delay, he leapt on board the Admiral's ship too. The



BATTLE OF CAPE ST. VINCENT.

Spanish officers at once surrendered to him, and brought him their swords. They were so many, that Nelson gave them to one of his bargemen to hold. The man coolly tucked them under his arm in a bundle, as if they had been so many sticks.

6. The Mutiny at Spithead.—There was a

worse danger at home, than any that could come from a Spanish fleet. The sailors who fought the battles of England were discontented ; and not without cause. They were paid at the rate which had been settled in the time of Charles II., though the price of provisions which they had to buy had risen a great deal since those days. The provisions given them were very bad. When they were ill, and even when they had been wounded in battle, their pay was stopped till they were well again. Order was kept by constant flogging, and floggings were given for very small offences indeed, and sometimes where no offence at all had been committed. The sailors on board the fleet at Spithead sent a petition to the Admiralty asking for better treatment. As no notice was taken of their petition, they mutinied. They refused to go to sea when ordered. They would obey their officers no longer, till their requests were granted. But they did no harm to the officers, and contented themselves with sending on shore those who had treated them most brutally. The Lords of the Admiralty acted wisely. They saw that the sailors asked nothing but that which ought to have been granted before ; and they sent Lord

Howe on board to tell the men that they should be pardoned, and that their requests should be granted, if they would return to their duty. Lord Howe, who had commanded in the Battle of the First of June, was a great favourite with the sailors, and they agreed to submit. Their grievances were redressed ; and, though a short time afterwards, when they suspected that they were not to be treated fairly, they began once more to mutiny, the disturbance came to an end as soon as they found out that the Admiralty intended to deal honestly with them ; and after this they never thought of mutinying again.

7. The Mutiny at the Nore.—The mutiny at Spithead was scarcely over, when another mutiny broke out in the fleet at the Nore, near the mouth of the Thames. The sailors at the Nore asked not merely that the complaints made at Spithead should be attended to,—just as if they had not been attended to already,—but they asked to command their own ships instead of the officers. If the proposal had been accepted, the ships would have been of no use at all. The mutiny spread to Admiral Duncan's fleet, which was keeping watch over the Dutch ships in the Texel, to

prevent them from coming out to help the French. Most of his ships sailed away to join the others at the Nore. At one time, he was left with only his own ship to guard the sea. He boldly remained in sight of the port in which the whole Dutch fleet was, and ran up flags every now and then, as if he were making signals to his other ships. By this means he deceived the Dutch, who thought that he had a fleet out of sight; and they kept quietly in port, till he received help and became strong enough to fight them if they came out. In the meanwhile the Government at home got the better of the mutineers. Some of their own ships deserted them, and after a time the others surrendered. The chief leader of the mutiny was hanged; and the rest of the men returned to their duty, and did good service afterwards. The Dutch fleet came out at last, and was defeated by Duncan at the battle of Camperdown.

8. Bonaparte in Egypt.—Very soon after this battle, the French made peace with the Austrians; and Pitt tried once more to make peace with the French, though again the two Governments failed to agree, and the war went on. Bonaparte sailed with an army to Egypt. On his way he took possession of Malta. He

then went on to Egypt, which was spoken of as part of the Sultan's dominions, though it was in reality governed by some warlike soldiers called Mamelukes. Bonaparte tried to take them in, by telling them that the French were true Mussulmans. They did not believe a word of it ; and they fought hard for their independence. These fierce horsemen could not stand up against the guns of the disciplined French army, and they were defeated with great slaughter. The battle was named the Battle of the Pyramids, from the huge pyramids standing near, which had been raised in the days of the Pharaohs, to be the tombs of those ancient kings. 'From the tops of the pyramids,' said the French general to his men, 'forty centuries are looking down upon you.'

9. The Battle of the Nile.—When Bonaparte was on his way to Egypt, Nelson,—who had been made an Admiral since the battle of St. Vincent,—was sailing up and down the Mediterranean in search of him. When he reached the coast of Egypt, he found that the French army was no longer on board the ships which had brought it. Nelson at once attacked the ships, which were anchored in a long line near the shore. He broke through their line,

placing half of his own ships between them and the shore, and placing half outside. The battle raged far into the night. Nelson was wounded and carried below. A surgeon ran up to attend to him. 'No,' said the Admiral, 'I will take my turn with my brave fellows.' His wound proved but a slight one. Whilst he was lying in his cabin, he heard the sailors on deck calling out that the French Admiral's ship was on fire. Wounded as he was, he went on deck, and gave orders to send out boats to help the Frenchmen to escape from the burning vessel. In the end, the French were completely beaten.

10. **Irish Difficulties.**—England could overpower the French at sea. There was one country which it was easy to keep down, but where it was very hard to do good. After the time of William III. the native Irish were treated with very great cruelty. There was an Irish Parliament which sat at Dublin, but no one who was not a Protestant was allowed to be a member of it. The laws made by it were very oppressive to the Irish Catholics; and it was no wonder that they hated bitterly those who ruled them so ill. These laws, however, were gradually put an end to; but the Protestants of English origin who ruled

Ireland, had no feeling of kindness towards the Catholic Irish, and did not care to help them. Soon after the American War was over, the Parliament at Dublin insisted upon making itself quite independent of England, which it had not been before. Pitt, when he became minister, saw that the best thing to be done for Irishmen was to help them to be richer than they were. They were not allowed to trade with England, without paying duties as if they had been foreigners. Pitt therefore proposed to give to Ireland freedom of trade with England, so that they might become better off than they had been. Pitt, however, was unable to give to the Irish all that they thought they ought to have ; and the Irish Parliament rejected his proposal. They did not understand the proverb which says, ‘ Half a loaf is better than no bread.’ Even after the French Revolution began, Pitt tried hard to do something for Ireland. The Catholics were now allowed to vote for members of Parliament, though they were not allowed to sit in it, any more than they were in England. Pitt at last sent over Lord Fitzwilliam to be Lord Lieutenant. He was to ask the Irish Parliament to make a law, allowing the Catholics to become members of Parliament, and to hold

offices in the state. Unluckily some of the Irish Protestants came over to England and complained to the King. George III. thought it would be very wicked to allow Catholics to have any power, and that if they had it, they would use it to hurt the Protestant Church. Most of his subjects in England thought so too ; and Pitt was obliged to recall Lord Fitzwilliam, and the plan about the Catholics had to be given up.

11. The Irish Rebellion of 1798.—It was a most unhappy ending to Pitt's first attempt to do good to Ireland. He was himself wiser than the English King or the English people. To the Irish it seemed useless to hope for anything good from England. Even some Irish Protestants were now ready to join the Irish Catholics ; and a society was formed which bore the name of the 'United Irishmen.' These men invited a French fleet and army to come to their help. The fleet and army actually arrived ; but the general who was to command the army, did not come. The rest of the expedition waited for him in Bantry Bay. A storm drove it out to sea, and not a single French soldier landed. In 1798 the Irish rose in rebellion. The rebels committed many cruelties, burning houses and murdering

the people. The Irish Protestants who took the side of the English Government were as cruel as the rebels, and killed without mercy all they met. Things seemed to be as bad as they had been at the time of the Long Parliament. The rebels formed a great camp at Vinegar Hill. By this time an English force was ready to attack them, and their camp was taken. There were more brutal massacres on both sides. At last the rebels were put down. Then followed scenes of the utmost horror. Soldiers, and officers, and magistrates did as they pleased. Irishmen were treated with barbarity, on the mere suspicion of having had something to do with the rebels. One magistrate was usually known by the nickname of 'Flogging Fitzgerald ;' and he well deserved it. The Government in England had no wish to see these atrocities continue. Pitt sent over a new Lord Lieutenant,—Lord Cornwallis,—who did all he could to stop this oppression.

12. The Union with Ireland.—Ireland was thus divided between two parties, hating one another most bitterly. Pitt thought that the best way of putting an end to this evil state of things, was to unite Great Britain and Ireland by uniting the two Parliaments. He

intended to accompany this change by admitting the Irish Catholics to offices, and to seats in Parliament. He found it difficult to persuade the Irish Parliament to consent to the proposed union. But many of the members were ready to take money or promotion for their votes ; and so he bought their votes, and the union was agreed to. Unfortunately, when he came to propose his plan for the relief of the Catholics, the King refused to allow him to make any change. On this refusal Pitt resigned office. The King had the mass of the English people on his side ; and even Pitt could do no more.

13. Addington's Ministry and the Battle of Copenhagen. — The successor of Pitt was Addington,—a well-meaning man, who was not a very wise one. Before Pitt resigned, there had been great changes in France. Whilst Bonaparte was in Egypt, war had begun again in Europe ; and the Russians and Austrians had beaten the French armies. Bonaparte left Egypt, came back to France, and, with the help of his soldiers, turned out the Assemblies which had governed the country. He then proposed to the French people, to set up a form of government of which he was to be the head, with the name

of the First Consul. This proposal was accepted ; and from that time, the French allowed Bonaparte to rule them as he pleased. He led an army into Italy, beat the Austrians, and made a treaty of peace, by which it was arranged that France should extend as far as the Rhine. England was now the only coun-



COPENHAGEN.

try at war with France. It made matters worse, that the states on the Baltic were preparing to resist England, because English ships of war stopped their trading vessels, to see if they had any goods on board intended for the use of the French Government. Admiral Hyde Parker was sent with a fleet to

the Baltic. Nelson was his second in command, and when the fleet arrived near Copenhagen, Parker directed Nelson to attack the Danish fleet. What followed has been told by the poet Campbell.

Of Nelson and the North,
Sing the glorious day's renown,
When to battle fierce came forth
All the might of Denmark's crown,
And her arms along the deep proudly shone.
By each gun the lighted brand,
In a bold determined hand,
And the Prince of all the land
Led them on.

Like Leviathans afloat,
Lay their bulwarks on the brine,
While the sign of battle flew
On the lofty British line.
It was ten of April morn by the chime
As they drifted on their path,
There was silence deep as death,
And the boldest held their breath
For a time.

For some hours the battle raged fiercely. The Danes fought bravely. Admiral Parker, who remained at a distance, thought that it would be impossible to beat them. He hoisted a signal to Nelson, ordering him to stop fighting. Nelson, who had some years before lost

the sight of one eye, put his telescope to his blind eye, and declared that he could not see the signal. He ordered his ships to go on with the battle.

Again ! again ! again !
 And the havoc did not slack,
 Till a feeble cheer the Dane
 To our cheering sent us back ;
 Their shots along the deep slowly boom,
 Then cease—and all is wail,
 As they strike the shattered sail ;
 Or, in conflagration pale,
 Light the gloom.

Out spoke the victor then,
 As he hailed them o'er the wave,
 ' Ye are brothers ! ye are men !
 And we conquer but to save.
 So peace instead of death let us bring,
 But yield, proud foe, thy fleet,
 With the crews, at England's feet,
 And make submission meet
 To our King.'

Nelson sent the wounded Danes on shore, and told the Crown Prince,—who ruled Denmark in his father's place,—that he should consider this the greatest victory that he had ever gained, if it led to friendship between England and Denmark. When he landed, the people received him with shouts, to thank him for his kindness to the wounded.

14. The Expedition to Egypt and the Peace of Amiens.—About the same time that the battle of Copenhagen was fought, an expedition was sent to Egypt, to drive out the French who had been left behind by Napoleon. The French were defeated, and sent home to their own country. Not long afterwards, in 1802, a peace was signed at Amiens between England and France, and fighting came to an end for a little time.

CHAPTER XL.

FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS TO THE BEGINNING OF THE PENINSULAR WAR.

(1802–1808.)

1. End of the Peace of Amiens.—The Peace of Amiens did not last long. Bonaparte had no intention of satisfying himself with ruling over France, even with the new countries which had been added to it. He seized upon part of Italy, sent troops into Switzerland, and interfered with the Dutch. The English Government had promised to give back Malta to the knights ; but they now refused to do

so, unless the French would give up meddling with other countries. Bonaparte was very angry, and scolded the English ambassador. Before long the war began again.

2. Projected Invasion of England.—Before the Peace of Amiens, there had been many people who disliked the war with France. Scarcely any one had a good word for Bonaparte now. He had begun by seizing 10,000 English travellers who had gone to enjoy themselves in France. He shut them up in prisons, in which they remained for years. Then he made preparations for the invasion of England. All classes were roused to resist him. The merchants and tradesmen of London declared their readiness to do all that it was possible to do in defence of their country ; and the same readiness to support the Government spread over the country. When news came that a French army was being collected at Boulogne, and that boats were being built to carry it across the Straits of Dover, 60,000 volunteers offered to come forward to defend their homes. A few weeks later the number had risen to 300,000. A little later it had almost reached 380,000. Bonaparte had come down to Boulogne to review his army. He looked across the

Channel. 'It is a ditch,' he wrote, 'that will be leaped over, when we shall have the boldness to make the attempt.' He did not intend, however, to send his boats laden with soldiers across the sea without protection. He had a plan in his head by which he hoped, before long, to have a fleet in the Channel to guard the passage. In the meanwhile the English volunteers were busily drilling. The King reviewed the London regiments in Hyde Park. Pitt became an officer of volunteers, and exercised his men diligently.

3. Pitt's Second Ministry.—Naturally enough, there was a strong wish in the country to have a better Prime Minister than Addington. After some time Addington resigned, and the King sent for Pitt. Pitt proposed that a ministry should be formed composed of the best men of both parties. Both Whigs and Tories were equally ready to defend England against invasion; and why should they not all work together? Pitt proposed that Fox should join the ministry. He had been bitterly opposed to Pitt, but Pitt was ready to be reconciled. Fox, too, was ready to be reconciled. The King would not hear of employing Fox, whom he had never forgiven for joining North in the Coalition

Ministry. The others, who had been Pitt's colleagues in his last ministry, refused to join him now if Fox was to be excluded. One of these was Lord Grenville. 'I will teach that proud man,' said Pitt, 'that I can do without him.' Pitt became Prime Minister, but he had to fill the other offices with men most of whom were not at all fit for such important posts.

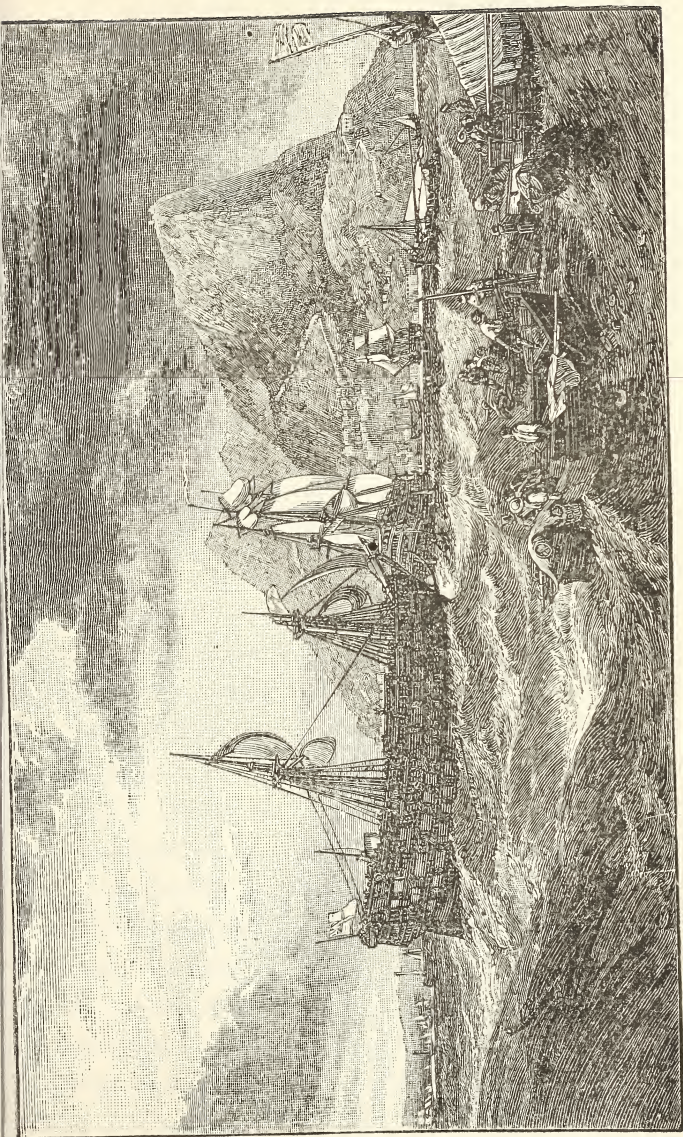
4. Napoleon's Plan for invading England. —Not long after Pitt became Prime Minister, Bonaparte changed his title. He was now 'Napoleon, Emperor of the French.' The Pope came all the way to Paris to crown him. Napoleon took the crown himself and placed it on his own head. His plan for bringing a fleet into the Channel was now ready to be carried out. He had persuaded the King of Spain to join him in the war against England. By Napoleon's orders, a French fleet came out of Toulon, passed the Straits of Gibraltar to Cadiz, picked up a Spanish fleet which was there, and sailed off to the West Indies. Napoleon expected that the English fleet would follow it there, and would lose time, whilst the French and Spanish ships returned to Europe, and joined another French fleet which was at Brest. All of them together

were to sail up the Channel, and guard the Strait of Dover whilst his army crossed. The first part of his expectation was fulfilled. Nelson, with only thirteen ships, crossed the Atlantic in pursuit of the thirty ships of the enemy. When he heard that they had left the West Indies, he came after them. He did not catch them; but another British admiral with fifteen ships fell in with them, took two Spanish ships, and so frightened the rest, that they went off to Cadiz, and never even tried to come near the Channel.

5. **The Battle of Trafalgar.**—Napoleon was greatly disappointed. He fancied that the failure was owing entirely to the cowardice of his admiral; and he ordered him to put out to sea again. The poor man assured the Emperor that he should certainly be beaten. His sailors had long been shut up in harbour, and they had not been in the constant habit of managing their ships in the rolling seas, as the English sailors had. Napoleon would take no excuse; and the admiral set out with a heavy heart. Nelson came up with him off Cape Trafalgar. He ordered the signal to be made which told the British fleet that ‘England expects that every man will do his duty.’ The French and Spaniards fought

well, but they had no chance against the trained British crews. In the midst of the fight, Nelson was shot by a man in the rigging of a French ship. He was carried below to die. The enemy's force was almost entirely destroyed. Never again during the war, did a French or Spanish fleet put to sea. Yet so deeply was Nelson beloved in England, that it was doubtful, when the news arrived, whether joy for the victory, or sorrow for the loss, was greatest. The battle of Trafalgar was, for England, what Cromwell would have called 'a crowning mercy.' Never again has an English fleet had to fight a battle against a European navy. Our ancestors fought and died, that England might be free and unconquered.

6. Pitt's Last Days.—Not long after England lost her greatest sailor, she lost her greatest statesman. As soon as Napoleon saw that his chance of invading England was over, he led his army to attack Austria and Russia. He forced an Austrian army to surrender at Ulm, entered Vienna in triumph, and defeated the combined Austrian and Russian armies at Austerlitz,—forcing the Austrians to make peace with him. Pitt had hoped much from this alliance. His health



THE 'VICTORY' TOWED INTO GIBRALTAR.

was no longer what it was, and the last bad news crushed him. In January 1806, he died.

7. The Ministry of all the Talents.—The ministry of all parties which Pitt had wished for came into office after his death. The King allowed Fox to have office. Lord Grenville was Prime Minister. This Government was known as the ‘Ministry of all the Talents.’ It did not last long, but it lasted long enough to do one great thing. As far as England was concerned, it put an end to that horrible slave trade which Pitt and Wilberforce had denounced in vain. Fox died a few months after Pitt; but he lived long enough to know that English ships would no longer be allowed to carry black men across the Atlantic, into slavery. The other ministers were not successful. Napoleon got into a war with Prussia, and won a great victory, after which nearly the whole of Prussia submitted to him. Then he attacked the Russians. For some time it seemed doubtful whether he would succeed in beating them or not. They called on England for help. The English ministry had sent away its soldiers on useless expeditions, and had none to spare. The Russian army was beaten, and the

Emperor of Russia at once made peace with Napoleon. The peace is known as the 'Peace of Tilsit.' Before that happened, the Ministry of all the Talents had ceased to govern. It proposed to allow Catholics to be officers in the army and navy. The King not only refused to allow this, but ordered the ministers to promise that they would never even propose to do anything for the Catholics again. On their refusal he turned them out of office.

8. State of the Continent after the Peace of Tilsit.—The next ministry was headed by the Duke of Portland, who was an invalid. The real leader was Mr. Perceval, who was determined to keep the Catholics out of all kinds of offices. As the English people agreed with him in this, he was able to do as he wished. Amongst the new ministers was George Canning, who had been a great admirer of Pitt. He was resolved to do all that could possibly be done to resist the power of Napoleon. Since Napoleon had made peace with Russia, no one on the Continent dared to say a word against him. He did exactly as he liked,—pulled down kings and set them up at his pleasure, and forced the people whom he had conquered to pay him enormous sums of

money. As he could no longer hope to be able to invade England, he tried to overpower it by injuring its commerce. He ordered that no one wherever the French power reached,—that is to say, as far as the borders of Russia—should use any goods brought in by English vessels. In consequence of the superiority of the English fleets, the inhabitants of all the western and central countries of Europe had no chance of getting any goods from beyond the sea, except in English vessels; as their own vessels would be stopped by the English ships. Coffee and tea, sugar and cotton, became very much dearer in all these countries. English merchants tried to smuggle them in; and whenever Napoleon's officers found them, they seized them. The consequence was, that the poor grew even more angry with Napoleon than the kings and great men had been before. Every poor man who found that he had to pay much more than he had been accustomed to pay for his cup of coffee, or for his shirt, hated Napoleon. It would not be many years, before this universal hatred would rouse millions of people in Europe against Napoleon, and would pull him down from his power.

9. The Seizure of the Danish Fleet.—One of Napoleon's designs was to seize the Danish

fleet,—which was a very good one,—and to use it against England. Canning heard of this, and at once sent a fleet and army to Copenhagen. As soon as they arrived, a messenger was sent to the Crown Prince, or eldest son of the King, who governed Denmark in his father's name, to ask him to give up the Danish ships. He was told, that, if he did so, the British Government would give them back at the end of the war. He refused ; and Copenhagen was attacked. At last the Danes were forced to give up their ships. Napoleon was very angry. He could not imagine how Canning had found out the secret. In England, a great many people, who did not know what Canning knew, were very much displeased, because they thought it an unjust thing to take the fleet from the Danes. When the fleet returned, George III. spoke to the gentleman who had carried the message to the Crown Prince, and asked him whether the Crown Prince was upstairs or downstairs when he received him. ‘He was on the ground floor, please your majesty,’ was the gentleman's reply. ‘I am glad of it for your sake,’ said the King ; ‘for, if he had half my spirit, he would certainly have kicked you downstairs.’

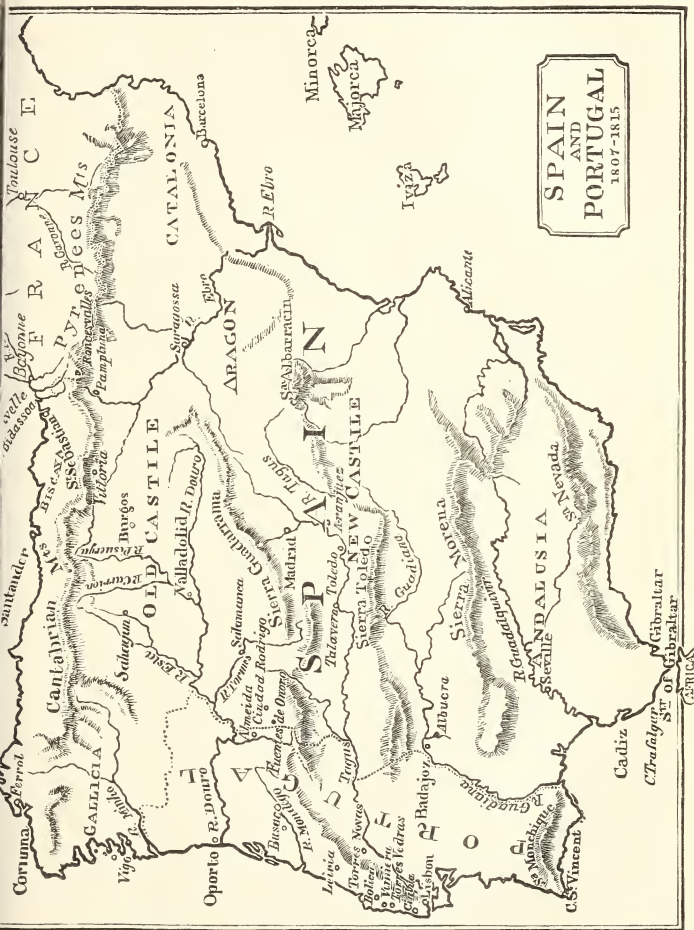
CHAPTER XLI.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE PENINSULAR
WAR TO THE PEACE OF PARIS.

(1808-1814.)

1. Spain and Portugal.—Napoleon was not content with his victories. His army had never marched beyond the Pyrenees, and he disliked nothing so much as to be at peace. First, he picked a quarrel with Portugal, and sent an army which seized Lisbon. Then he looked out for an opportunity to get possession of Spain. It happened that Charles IV., King of Spain, and his son Ferdinand had quarrelled. Napoleon sent for them both to Bayonne, pretending that he would make up their quarrel. When they arrived, he persuaded the king to give up his crown, and, at the same time, seized the young man and sent him into confinement in a distant part of France. Then he sent his own brother Joseph to Madrid, to be King of Spain. The Spaniards were disgusted by this treatment; and they rose in insurrection, and proclaimed Ferdinand King. They sent to England for help. Canning at once took up their cause,

and sent them guns, and gunpowder, and



money. He also sent an army to Portugal, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards

became the Duke of Wellington. He had fought well in India, but nobody knew yet how very great a man he was. The war which now began, in 1808, is known as the *Peninsular War*,—because it was fought in the peninsula formed by the two countries of Spain and Portugal. Wellesley beat the French in Portugal, at Vimiero, and drove them into Lisbon. An arrangement was made, by which the French army was to be allowed to go back to France, leaving Portugal free. Soon after this, Wellesley returned to England, though part of his army remained behind. About the same time, a French army had to surrender to the Spaniards at Baylen, in the south of Spain ; and the Spaniards fancied that their troubles were nearly at an end.

2. *Napoleon in Spain.*—The Spaniards had plenty of trouble before them. Each separate Spaniard was ready to fight and to die for his country ; but they did not fight well when they were together in an army. The men were without discipline, and did not trust their generals ; and the generals did not deserve to be trusted. They thought it was so easy to win victories, that they did not take any pains to win them. The consequence was, that they were always beaten whenever

they fought battles. Napoleon no sooner heard that his soldiers had been taken prisoners, than he resolved to come himself to Spain. At the head of an army he marched into the country, beat the Spaniards, and entered Madrid in triumph. The English general, Sir John Moore, was advancing through the north-west of Spain. He hoped that the Spaniards would gather round him to fight the French ; but the Spaniards did nothing of the sort. When Moore reached Sahagun, he heard that Napoleon was coming to attack him with a much larger army than his own ; and he had to retreat. Fortunately for him, Napoleon went home to France, and left one of his generals to follow the English.

3. The Battle of Corunna.—Sir John Moore reached Corunna with difficulty. He had hoped to find the English fleet there to take his army on board. But a mistake had been made, and the fleet had gone to another harbour. Before it could be fetched, the French arrived ; and a battle had to be fought, to drive them off, in order that the tired soldiers might get safely on board. The French were beaten, and the men got safely away ; but their brave commander was killed. He was buried on the field of battle by his

sorrowing companions. The story has been told by a poet named Wolfe :—

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As the corpse to the ramparts we hurried ;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero was buried.

We buried him darkly at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning,
By the struggling moon-beam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.

No useless coffin inclosed his breast,
Not in sheet nor in shroud we wound him ;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him.

Few and short were the prayers we said
And we spoke not a word of sorrow,
But we steadfastly gazed on the face that was dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow !

We thought as we hollowed his narrow bed,
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
How the foe and stranger would tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow !

But half of our heavy task was done,
When the clock struck the hour for retiring,
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe was sullenly firing.

Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory ;
We carved not a line and we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone with his glory !

4. Oporto and Talavera.—The next year Wellesley was sent back again with a fresh army to Portugal. Landing at Lisbon, he marched swiftly to Oporto, drove the French out, and then he returned and pushed on towards Madrid. At Talavera he met the French army. He had a large Spanish army with him as well as his own; but the Spaniards were jealous of him, and would not fight. As the Spaniards gave no help, the British soldiers had to do everything themselves. At last they won the victory. Before long other French armies approached, and Wellesley,—who was made Lord Wellington on account of the victory,—had to go back to Portugal. It seemed as if all this fighting had been useless. In reality it was of the greatest use. It taught Wellington that he could not depend on the Spaniards; and he never again trusted their promises to help him, or marched anywhere at their request.

5. Walcheren.—Napoleon was by this time engaged in another war with Austria. The inhabitants of the North of Germany were longing to rise against his tyranny, but his armies were too strong for them, and he had put French soldiers into all the strong fortresses in those parts. The English

Government had an army to dispose of ; and if it had been sent to the north of Germany, it might have given great assistance to the Germans. Instead of this, Lord Castlereagh, who was the minister who managed the war, sent it to the Scheldt, to attack Antwerp. The command of the army was given to Lord Chatham, the eldest son of the great minister. He was not a good soldier, or a wise man. The command of the fleet was given to Sir Richard Strahan. Instead of sailing quickly up to Antwerp, the commander stopped near the mouth of the river, and landed the men on the island of Walcheren. The French soldiers from all parts hurried to Antwerp, and made the place too strong to be taken. Walcheren is a low flat island, and a fever broke out amongst the English soldiers, which destroyed a great number of them. At last the expedition came back without doing anything ; and people at home laid the blame on the general and admiral. Some clever fellow wrote that

My Lord Chatham, with his sword drawn,
Stood waiting for Sir Richard Strahan ;
Sir Richard, longing to be at 'em,
Stood waiting for the Earl of Chatham.

6. Wellington's Difficulties in Spain.—
Wellington had difficulties enough in Spain.

He had but few soldiers to oppose to the hosts of the French. If the French armies could have joined together, they must have driven him out of the Peninsula. Yet he did not despair. He did not trust in his own skill, great as it was, so much as in the righteousness of his cause. He knew how terribly cruel and oppressive Napoleon was, and he felt sure that, sooner or later, his cruelty would provoke all Europe to rise against him. How soon that day would come he could not tell ; but he felt that it was his business to wait patiently till the time came. In Spain, the French armies, numerous as they were, were already in difficulty. The Spaniards could not fight great battles, but they could form small groups of men, each having his gun in his hand, and firing at small parties of Frenchmen. Then, too, there were always a number of French generals in Spain, and they despised Joseph,—whom Napoleon had made King of Spain,—because he was not a soldier ; and, therefore, they would not do as he ordered them. They were also very jealous of one another, and never liked to help one another, for fear that the other might get the credit of any victory that was gained. All this helped Wellington very

much ; because, if he had two or more generals against him, he could calculate that they would not agree what to do. Perhaps the treatment which Wellington received from the ministers at home, was worse for him than the opposition of his enemies. Canning ceased to be minister about this time, and Mr. Perceval became Prime Minister. The ministers did not think it possible that Wellington would ever succeed in conquering Spain, and they were always talking of ordering him to come home. With all this to endure, he had need of the most wonderful patience. His patience was as great as that of Washington ; and it was this, even more than his being a great general, which enabled him to win in the end.

7. Torres Vedras.—In the year in which the battle of Talavera was fought, Napoleon had beaten the Austrians. He did not himself come into the Peninsula the next summer ; but he sent his best general, Massena, with orders to drive the English into the sea. Wellington knew that he had not a large enough army to fight him, though he had now got a number of Portuguese, who were put under English officers, and made excellent soldiers. He quietly prepared means to

stop him. At Lisbon he had a good port, where the English ships could come and take his army away if he were forced to leave the country, or could bring food for his men as long as he chose to stay. He therefore threw up three lines of fortifications from the river Tagus to the sea. The first one was intended to stop Massena for a time. The second one was intended to stop him if he passed the first. The third one was intended to protect the soldiers if they had to embark,—though Wellington did not expect to have to use it for that purpose. These fortifications are known as the ‘Lines of Torres Vedras,’ from the name of a village near them. When Massena reached Portugal, Wellington met him near the frontier, and retreated slowly. He had given orders that all cattle were to be driven away and the crops destroyed, in order that the French might find nothing to eat. When Massena saw Wellington retreating, he thought that everything was going well, and that he would soon drive the English to their ships. He had not the slightest idea that there were any fortifications in the way. When at last Wellington’s army went behind the first line, the French were taken by surprise. Massena took some time to think

whether he would attack the lines at all. The more he thought of it the less he liked the idea. Week after week passed by, and he did not venture to attack. All this while provisions were running short in the French camp. At last the half-starved Frenchmen had, unwillingly, to retreat. No less than 45,000 of them died of hunger and disease, or were cut off by the Portuguese if they straggled from their ranks. Wellington followed up the retiring enemy, and by the next spring there was not a Frenchman left in Portugal.

8. The Regency.—At home, whilst Wellington was struggling with the French, the old King ceased to have any further knowledge of joy or sorrow. The madness, with which in the course of his reign he had been from time to time afflicted, came down upon him like a dark cloud in 1811. He remained insane the rest of his life. He lost his eyesight too; and the blind old man was an object of affectionate pity to his subjects, during the nine years which he had still to live. His strong will was broken down for ever. His place was taken by his eldest son, a selfish and unprincipled man, who was now known as the Prince Regent, and afterwards

as George IV. That year was marked by some fighting in Spain. At Barossa and Fuentes d'Onoro in the spring, and at Albuera in the summer, the British gained victories ; but the main object of Wellington was to capture two strong fortresses,—Ciudad Rodrigo in the north, and Badajoz in the south,—which shut up the two great roads from Portugal into Spain. If the French held these they might again invade Portugal. If Wellington could gain them he might invade Spain. The invasion of Spain seemed to him now likely to be possible. Napoleon, not content with the enormous power which he exercised over all Western Europe, was threatening Russia ; and Wellington knew that, if Napoleon engaged in war with Russia, he would have no soldiers to spare to send to Spain.

9. The Guerillas.—The year 1812 was the one which saw the beginning of the ruin of the great oppressor. Spain swarmed with armed men, moving about separately or in small bands. These men were called *Guerillas*,—which is a Spanish word meaning men who fight in small companies, and not in great armies. They shot down the French wherever they found them straggling, slipping

away easily amongst the hills or woods, where every path was known to them. The French found it as difficult to lay hands upon them, as a man finds it difficult to catch gnats which sting him. If a French soldier had to carry a letter, even a short way, he needed an escort of at least 200 men to see him safely through Spain. An important despatch to the Emperor had to be guarded by more than 1,000 horsemen. The Guerillas seized money or provisions going to the enemy's army, and stole the horses or the guns. Wellington knew that a great part of the French army would be so occupied in keeping off the Guerillas that the whole of it could not be gathered into one place to fight him.

10. The Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz.—Wellington was thus able to attack the two great fortresses which stopped his road into Spain. In the first month of the year he set out for Ciudad Rodrigo. He knew that if he did not take it in a short time he would not be able to take it at all ; because a large French army would arrive to drive him off. He had no proper tools for digging trenches. The English Government kept their general ill-supplied in almost everything that he ought to have had. Yet the town was taken after

great slaughter, and the soldiers disgraced themselves by brutal violence when they burst into the place. Three months later Badajoz was also attacked. Again the British soldiers had to rush upon almost certain death, because there was no time to wait. As the men charged up the slippery breach, which was guarded with a row of sword-blades fixed in a beam, rank after rank was mown down by fire from the French guns, like grass before the scythe. After a terrible slaughter the town was at last taken. When Wellington heard of the number of the dead, 'the pride of conquest yielded to a passionate burst of grief for the loss of his soldiers.' Sad to say, the soldiers who were living were raging madly about the streets in drunken fury, slaying and wounding the miserable inhabitants, plundering and destroying whatever came into their hands. Happily British soldiers would not now behave like wild beasts.

11. The Battle of Salamanca.—Wellington before long came up with a French army at Salamanca. The French general moved his troops in an awkward way across the field of battle. 'At last,' said Wellington, 'I have him.' He ordered his men to advance, and gained a complete victory. He had gained no

such victory before. He went to Madrid, where the Spaniards received him with the greatest honours. King Joseph fled before him. Wellington, however, did not quite conquer Spain in this year. He carried his army to Burgos, and laid siege to it. But the French armies gathered round him, and he had to go back to Portugal. Yet even this failure, as it seemed, was the beginning of success. The French armies had to leave the south of Spain, in order to meet Wellington in the north ; and the south of Spain was thus set free from their presence.

12. Napoleon's Russian Campaign.—Whilst Wellington was fighting at Salamanca and Burgos, Napoleon was marching through Russia. The Russians retreated before him. There was one tremendous battle, after which he reached Moscow. He expected that the Russians would make peace when he had taken Moscow ; but, instead of making peace, they set fire to Moscow. Napoleon and his army had nowhere to shelter themselves against the bitter cold of the Russian winter which was coming on. Even if they had been able to keep themselves warm at Moscow, they had not provisions enough to feed on till summer came, as they had been so sure that the

Russians would submit, that they had not brought large stores with them. There was no help for it. They had to go back for hundreds of miles. Soon the snow began to fall, and the bitter, frosty wind swept over the level plains. For a time they struggled on. Then they began to give way. The hard frost was



NAPOLEON'S RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

bad enough to bear, when they were on the march ; but it was terrible at night, when they had to lie down on the snow round large fires of wood, which, large as they were, were not enough to warm them. Every morning, when they started, some of their comrades were left behind frozen to death. Others lagged

behind, worn out with cold and fatigue, and dropped dead upon the snow. Fewer and fewer they grew, as they struggled on with pale and hunger-stricken faces. Of 400,000 men who had entered Russia, only 20,000 came out. Napoleon's grand army was destroyed.

13. The Uprising of Prussia and the Battle of Vittoria.—The pursuing Russian army advanced into Prussia. Prussia and its king resolved to rise against Napoleon. From one end of the land to the other, the cry arose for deliverance. From field and city the volunteers poured forth, to be drilled and disciplined, that they might fight worthily for their Fatherland. Napoleon came amongst them with a new army, for the most part composed of young lads. His extraordinary military skill enabled him to beat the Russians and Prussians in two great battles. Then the Austrians joined his enemies. One other battle he succeeded in winning. But the number of his enemies and their fierce hatred, were too much for him to bear up against. At Leipzig,—in a tremendous battle lasting for three days,—he was utterly defeated; and, with the small remnants of his army, he made off for France before the year was over. Germany was free.

That year Wellington had struck down Napoleon's lieutenants in Spain, as surely as their master had been struck down on the plains of Northern Germany. He had now a finer and more numerous army than he had ever had before. As he crossed the little stream which separated Spain from Portugal, he stood up in his stirrups and waved his hand, crying out, 'Adieu, Portugal !' He marched along the road that led to France. At Vittoria he came upon the French army, in which was King Joseph himself. Joseph had abandoned Madrid, to fight one last battle for the throne which had brought nothing but misery to him. He was utterly defeated. There was a long siege of St. Sebastian. At last it was taken, and then Spain was as free as Germany.

14. *Napoleon's Last Struggle.*—In the first months of 1814, Napoleon struggled hard at least to maintain his power in France. He fought with even more than his usual skill. In the north the united armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria pushed on. They were often beaten, but they pushed on still. They were too many to be overcome. At last they reached and entered Paris. Napoleon abdicated ; and was sent to the Isle of Elba, off

the coast of Italy, where he might continue to call himself Emperor. The Peace of Paris restored peace to all Europe. Lewis XVIII., the brother of the King Lewis who had been executed, came back to be King of France. In the south, Wellington had reached Bordeaux



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

after further victories. His last battle where he defeated the French was fought at Toulouse.

15. Wellington's Military Career.—The English general was now Duke of Wellington. He had rendered services to his country which no honours could repay. When there were few men in Europe who did not despair, he

did not despair. He was hopeful, because he believed that wrong-doing and cruelty could not prosper for ever. He fought, not for glory, but for duty.

CHAPTER XLII.

FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS TO THE DEATH OF GEORGE III.

(1814-1820.)

1. The American War and the Return of Napoleon.—The army which had served Wellington so well, and which, as he said, ‘could go anywhere and do anything,’ was not allowed to rest. It was sent to America. Unhappily England was at war with the United States. Fortunately the war came to an end after it had lasted two years. In 1815, the year after the end of the great war, the Peninsular army was really wanted in Europe, when it was not to be had. Napoleon escaped from Elba and landed in France. The restored king had governed so unwisely, that Napoleon was welcomed by the soldiers and by a great part of the people. He entered

Paris in triumph, and was once more Emperor of the French.

2. The Battle of Waterloo.—The other nations of Europe were not likely to be so well pleased. They knew that Napoleon had always picked quarrels with them before, and that, if he had time to get together a large army, he would probably pick a quarrel with them once more. They did not want to run the chance of being conquered again ; and they knew that if they were conquered by him, he would show them no mercy. They therefore declared that they would have no peace with him. England, Prussia, Austria, and Russia joined in this declaration. Of the four, England and Prussia were first ready. An English army under Wellington, and a Prussian army under Blucher, appeared in the Netherlands. Napoleon dashed across the French frontier, to attack them whilst they were still separated. He beat the Prussians and drove them back, fancying that they would retreat towards their own home, and that the English,—who were not nearly as many as his own troops,—would be left alone to resist him. He attacked Wellington at Waterloo. For some hours the English army had to resist the charges of the French. They

held out bravely, though most of them had never been in battle before. Yet unless they were succoured they would hardly hold out to the end. In the afternoon help came. The Prussians were seen marching to their aid. Napoleon found that he had two armies to meet instead of one. The whole French army fled in utter rout. Napoleon was once more deposed, and gave himself up to the captain of an English ship. He was carried to St. Helena, and there he was kept in safety till he died, that he might no more trouble the nations which he had afflicted so long. Lewis XVIII. was again set upon the throne of France.

3. General Distress.—England was now at peace. She had done her duty to Europe. Those who do their duty must not expect that it will bring no hardships with it. For a man to do his duty means that he is ready to give up many things that are pleasant, and to suffer much which is unpleasant. It is so with nations as well as men. There was terrible suffering after the war. Millions of pounds had been spent and lost to the country in supporting the war. This and other causes brought about the ruin of manufacturers and farmers. The ruin of manufacturers and

farmers brought sharp distress to the labourers and the artisans. Poor men were more ignorant then than they are now, and they broke out into riots,—as if rioting would give them work, or earn them money.

4. Romilly as a Criminal-Law Reformer.—The Government was frightened. Mr. Perceval, the Prime Minister, had been murdered some years before, and had been succeeded by Lord Liverpool. Lord Liverpool was a man of kind disposition, who left the business of governing very much to the other ministers ; and the other ministers were still frightened, lest what had happened in France at the Revolution, should happen in England. They did not like changes to be made, and thought it best to keep everything as it was. One man in the House of Commons, Sir Samuel Romilly, thought that the cruel laws which had come down from the old England of the Plantagenets and Tudors ought to be altered. It was law that any one who picked a pocket of more than five shillings, or carried off goods to the same amount from a shop, should be hanged. Some years before, Romilly had induced Parliament to agree to abolish the hanging of pickpockets, but the House of Lords refused to abolish hanging for these

who robbed a shop. Romilly again tried to persuade the House of Lords to be merciful ; but they were stubborn, and the hangings still went on.

5. Agitation in the Country.—Amongst the artisans of the north of England, a demand arose for Parliamentary Reform. They saw how much was amiss, and they thought that if every man had a vote, and there was a fresh Parliament every year, things would mend. They forgot that the greater number of men in England could neither read nor write, and that it might be dangerous to subject the Government to the control of those who were so very ignorant. In London a crowd marched into the City ; but it was easily driven back and its leaders secured by the Lord Mayor and a few citizens. All this frightened the Government. They obtained from Parliament new laws to enable them to put down rebellion. There was no rebellion to be feared, though the working-men knew that they were miserable, and wanted to be better off. A large number of men collected at Manchester, and set off towards London to ask for relief. Some of them had blankets rolled up on their backs,—perhaps to keep them warm by night,—so that their procession

is known as the 'March of the Blanketeers.' But they never got further than Macclesfield. Some were driven home again ; some grew tired, and went home of their own accord. In Derbyshire a man named Brandreth, who was half mad, headed about twenty men with pikes and guns, broke into several houses to search for arms, and shot one unfortunate man. His numbers increased to a hundred. They were met by a party of soldiers. Most of them ran away, but some were taken. Three of these were hanged, and others sentenced to various punishments. The Government and Parliament did all they could do to put down these disturbances ; but, as yet, they had no thought of setting their minds to find out their cause, or to relieve the people from their miseries.

6. The Manchester Massacre.—For some time, the conflict between the Government and the working-men of the North, went on. It was announced, that a great meeting would be held in St. Peter's Field, at Manchester, to petition for Parliamentary Reform. The Government was afraid that large numbers of men, when they came together, would not be content with merely preparing a petition. It was known that many of them had been

drilled by old soldiers. According to their own account of the matter, they only wanted healthy exercise, and to be able to march to and from the meetings in good order. It is no wonder that the Government thought that they intended to fight. The meeting was to be addressed by a man named Hunt,—a vain, empty-headed speaker with a fluent tongue, who was very popular at that time. The magistrates determined to arrest Hunt ; and, instead of waiting till the meeting was over, they sent soldiers to seize him in the midst of the multitude. The soldiers, who were not from the regular army, but yeomanry, chiefly composed of master-manufacturers, could not get through the thick crowd. They drew their swords and cut right and left. The regular soldiers, the Hussars, were then ordered to charge. The mass fled in confusion, leaving the wounded behind them. Six persons were killed, and many more were wounded. ‘The Manchester Massacre,’ as it was called, took place in 1819. It had an unexpected effect upon thoughtful men all over the country. Till then, there had been little disposition, amongst well-educated persons, to favour the demands of the artisans. Nobody who knew anything about politics,

could think that it would be wise to give every man a vote, in those days of ignorance. But no one who thought seriously could doubt, that the crowd at Manchester had been grievously wronged. When they were attacked by the soldiers, they had committed no offence against the law, and had simply come to listen to speeches in a peaceable and orderly way. The Government most unwisely declared the magistrates to have acted rightly, before they had had time to inquire whether they had or not. Parliament was on their side, and made new laws, known as 'The Six Acts,' to stop seditious meetings. But many people, who had hitherto supported the Government, were so disgusted, that they began to turn their minds to consider whether there might not be some way in which things might be altered for the better.

7. Death of George III.—The year after the Manchester Massacre, the poor, blind, mad old King died. His son, the Prince Regent, became King, under the name of George IV.

CHAPTER XLIII.

REIGN OF GEORGE IV.

(1820-1830.)

1. The Cato-Street Conspiracy.—When many people are dissatisfied, it often happens, that there are some who think that the easiest way to have right done, is to murder those whom they think to be guilty. So it had been in the time of the Gunpowder Plot ; and so it was again now. A man named Thistlewood, formed a plan, with some others, for killing all the ministers as they were at dinner together. The plot is known as the ‘Cato-Street Conspiracy ;’ because the conspirators met in Cato Street, a small street near the Edgware Road. The plot was, however, found out, and the plotters seized ; though they succeeded in killing one of the policemen sent after them, and in wounding three others.

2. George Canning ; Foreign Policy.—In 1822, two men entered the Government who did very much to change its character, and to lead it in a better way. They were George Canning and Robert Peel. Canning became Foreign Secretary ; that is to say, the minister

who has to manage all the arrangements with foreign states. The kings and emperors of the Continent were much more frightened lest there should be rebellions in their dominions, than even the English Government had been ; and they agreed to send troops to put down any rebellion which might happen, even in states which were not their own. An Austrian army had marched into Italy, to put down a rebellion which had resulted in establishing a Parliament in Naples ; and, soon after Canning came into office, a French army marched into Spain, to put down a rebellion which had had the same result at Madrid. The French restored the government of the cruel Ferdinand VII. ; and Ferdinand VII. then wanted to send Spanish soldiers to Portugal, because Portugal had established a Parliament. Canning sent British soldiers to the help of the Portuguese, and the Spaniards left Portugal alone. Without going to war, Canning did much to help the weak against the strong. There had been a long struggle in America, in which the Spanish colonies,—Mexico, Peru, Chili, and others,—had been striving to free themselves from Spain. Canning came forward to treat them as independent states, as they really were. In the east of Europe, too,

a bitter conflict was being waged. Greece was striving to set itself free from the brutal Turks. Most of the Governments of Europe did not like this ; they thought, that the Greeks were setting a bad example of rebellion. Canning was unable to do anything for the Greeks, but he let them understand that he wished them well.

3. Peel ; Reform of the Criminal Law.—Peel had become Home Secretary, almost at the same time that Canning had become Foreign Secretary. He had to look after the affairs of the people at home. He set himself at once to do useful work. He took up the task which Romilly, who was now dead, had begun ; and he persuaded Parliament to do away with a great number of laws inflicting the punishment of death for very slight offences. At the beginning of the century, there were no less than two hundred crimes which were punished by hanging. Any one, for instance, who stole fish out of a pond, who hunted in the King's forests, or who injured Westminster Bridge, was liable to be hanged. The House of Commons had again and again voted that men should no longer be put to death for such things, but the House of Lords had been obstinate. Peel insisted, that a less punish-

ment than that of death, should be imposed on those who had been guilty of at least a hundred of these small crimes. The House of Lords gave way ; and it became known that there was, at last, a man in the Government who could be trusted to make wise improvements.

4. Huskisson's Commercial Reforms. — Another member of the Government, Mr. Huskisson, began to diminish the payments made when foreign goods were brought into the country. It was a commencement of freedom of trade. People began to see, that they would be better off by making trade with foreign nations as easy as possible ; instead of making it as hard as possible. What was done, was indeed only a beginning ; but this, and all the other useful things that the Government was now doing, helped to put an end to all that ill-feeling which had caused such trouble a few years before. There were now no Manchester Massacres or Cato-Street Conspiracies, because Government and Parliament were doing their best to help the people, instead of merely doing their best to keep them down.

5. The Catholic Association.—There had been formed in Ireland a society known as the

‘Catholic Association.’ Its object was to obtain for Catholics the right of holding offices and sitting in Parliament. At its head was Daniel O’Connell. He was a most eloquent speaker, and he had a good cause. The Catholic Association became so powerful in Ireland, that many people in England were frightened lest it should bring about a rebellion. A law was passed to put an end to it ; but the law was so badly made, that the Association was able to go on, just as if there had been no law at all. Fortunately, there were men in Parliament who could understand that what the Association asked ought to be granted. The House of Commons passed a Bill for giving to the Catholics their rights. Canning was in favour of this. Peel was against it. The House of Lords rejected the Bill ; and nothing more was done for some years.

6. The Representative System.—Another matter, about which there had been much discussion, was Parliamentary Reform. There were many great towns in England,—such as Birmingham, Manchester, and Leeds,—which sent no members to Parliament. There were many little villages, which sent two members apiece. Of course the villagers

did not really choose the members to please themselves. They had to give their votes to the man who was recommended to them by the great landowner on whose estates they lived. Sometimes even there were no villagers to vote. One borough sending members to Parliament was only a ruined wall in a gentleman's park. Another was a grassy mound. Another had for some centuries been under the sea. In Scotland matters were even worse. In the county of Bute there were only twenty-one electors. On one occasion only one of these appeared at the time of election. He voted for himself, and so became a member of Parliament. The noblemen and gentlemen who were able to make the voters elect whom they pleased, considered the votes of these men as their own property. If they were in want of money, they got it by selling the post of member of Parliament to any one who would pay them for it. There were some places where the electors were numerous, and where they really chose whom they liked. But they very often liked to choose those who bribed them the most highly.

7. Parliamentary Reform. — Before the French Revolution, attempts had been made

to alter this state of things. When the French Revolution came, it was impossible to induce Parliament to listen to any plan of Reform. Because the French had violently done away with their bad government, Englishmen were afraid to improve their good one. They were too frightened to be reasonable; and they fancied that, if they transferred the right of voting from little villages to large constituencies, they would somehow pull down the King's throne, and bring a Reign of Terror into England. By the time which we have now reached, this feeling had passed away. Men of ability and education were ready to ask whether things might not be improved. A majority in the House of Commons had already resolved to do justice to the Catholics. But it was easier to do justice to the Catholics than to reform Parliament. There were so many members who found it easy to get into Parliament by getting the favour of a Duke or Lord, who would not find it easy to get in if they had to get the votes of the inhabitants of a large town. Besides this, there were others who objected to the change for better reasons. Even Canning, who was in favour of the Catholics, was against Parliamentary Reform.

He thought that if noblemen and gentlemen were no longer able to name members of Parliament, there would be fewer men of real intelligence and ability elected. Whilst this feeling prevailed, there was no chance that the House of Commons would listen to any scheme of Parliamentary Reform, unless some one was found to propose it, who would be content to ask for only a slight change at first. Nobody who asked for universal suffrage, or for anything like it, would get any one to follow him. Fortunately a young man, Lord John Russell, took the matter up. Even before the death of George III. he had persuaded the House of Commons to disfranchise four boroughs where the votes were openly sold; that is to say, to take away from them the right of electing members of Parliament. As usual, the Lords refused to assent to the change. After that Lord John Russell got one little Cornish village disfranchised. He proposed to give the right to Leeds. The Lords gave it to Yorkshire. After this some time passed before anything more was done.

8. The Canning and Goderich Ministries.—In 1827 Lord Liverpool died. As soon as it was known that he was too ill to remain at

his post, he resigned. Canning became Prime Minister. Great things were expected from him. He had not been three months in office when he was taken ill and died. Canning was succeeded by Lord Goderich, whose ministry only lasted for a very short time. During that time important news arrived from the East. The Greeks had for some years been fighting for their independence against the Turks. Some Englishmen went to their help ; amongst others the great English poet Lord Byron, who died of a fever caught in an unhealthy swamp. The Turks, not being themselves able to conquer them, sent to the Egyptians for help. An Egyptian army landed in Greece, and committed great atrocities,—killing the people, and destroying everything that it was possible to destroy. A fleet composed of English, French, Austrian, and Russian ships was sent to Greece, and destroyed the Turkish fleet at Navarino. In consequence of this, the Egyptian army left Greece, and the war came to an end. Not long afterwards Greece became an independent state.

9. The Wellington Ministry and the Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.—The Duke of Wellington followed Goderich as Prime

Minister. Peel again held the office of Home Secretary, which he had given up when Liverpool resigned. The new ministers agreed to a Bill, proposed by Lord John Russell, for the relief of the Dissenters. By the laws made in the time of Charles II., they were forbidden to hold offices in towns or under the Government. Lord John Russell had taken up their cause. He proposed that the law should be repealed, and he accomplished his object without difficulty.

10. The Clare Election.—The ministers had given way about the Dissenters, but they had made up their mind not to give way to the Catholics. But they had not been long in office, before they discovered that it would be very difficult to resist much longer. There was an election in Ireland in the county of Clare. Though Catholics could not sit in Parliament, they were allowed to vote for members. O'Connell was elected. As he was a Catholic, he was, by law, unable to sit in the House of Commons. Yet it was certain that whenever Parliament was dissolved, almost every county in the three provinces of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, would elect a Catholic. In the fourth province, that of Ulster, Protestants were numerous, perhaps

more numerous than the Catholics. Protestants and Catholics spoke angrily of one another; and it seemed very likely that they would take arms against one another. The cruel massacres and outrages which had desolated Ireland in 1798 might come again in 1829.

11. Catholic Emancipation.—Both Wellington and Peel had been all their lives against the Catholics. The majority of the English people probably agreed with them. They were afraid that if the Catholics got power, they would use it to hurt the Protestants. Wellington, however, had seen what war was; and he had no wish to see a civil war break out in Ireland. Anything, he thought, would be better than that. He resolved to give way. A Bill was brought into Parliament and passed into a law, that from that time Catholics should have equal rights with their Protestant fellow-subjects. It was one of the few reforms which have been made against the popular feeling in England. Perhaps, if Parliament had been reformed and the great towns had got their right of voting, it might not so easily have been carried.

12. The New Police.—Another improvement of a different kind was owing to Peel.

The police in London, whose business it was to take up thieves and other criminals, did not do their duty. Peel introduced much better policemen, who were well disciplined. The example was afterwards imitated in the rest of England. The nickname of 'Peeler,' which is sometimes used for a policeman, is derived from Peel's surname ; and the other nickname of 'Bobby,' from his Christian name Robert. In June 1830 King George IV. died.

13. Roads and Coaches.—Together with the political improvements which were being introduced, there were others which produced great advantages of another kind. Trade and manufactures had grown so much, that the canals which had been made in the beginning of the reign of George III., were no longer sufficient to convey the goods which had to be carried from one part of the country to another. It was true that the ordinary roads were much better than they had formerly been. Telford had taught roadmakers, that it was better to go round a hill than to go over it. Macadam had shown that, by breaking up stones, a hard surface could be made, on which carriages could pass without sinking in the mud up to the axle-trees,—as used to be

the case,—and had made travelling much easier than it had once been. Coaches flew about the country at what was then thought the wonderful rate of ten miles an hour, instead of crawling along at the slowest possible pace. But the new coaches would not carry heavy goods ; and more than one person had hit upon the idea that a steam-engine might be employed to do the work. Of many attempts not one succeeded till George Stephenson took the matter in hand.

14. Railways and Locomotives.—George Stephenson was born in Northumberland, a poor collier's son. He learnt something about machinery in the colliery in which he was employed ; and, after he was grown up, he saved money to pay for instruction in reading and writing. He began as an engineer by mending a pumping-engine ; and, after making some other engines, he tried to make a locomotive. The new engine was not successful at first, but he improved it till it did all that it was required to do. It dragged trucks of coal from the colliery more easily and cheaply than horses could do. Some years later, the first real railway was made between Stockton and Darlington. As yet, however, Stephen-

son's engines did not go very fast. The next railway to be made was one between Liverpool and Manchester. Stephenson made it go over Chat Moss, a bog over which a man could not walk. When the railway was made, the proprietors began to be frightened at the idea of using steam-engines. Stephenson persuaded them to offer a prize for the best locomotive. Four inventors sent engines to be tried. Stephenson's, which was called 'The Rocket,' was the only one which would move at all. The other inventors asked to be allowed to try again ; but they did not succeed on the second day, any better than they had on the first. 'The Rocket' set off at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour. After that, nobody doubted that the line must be worked by steam ; and before long there was scarcely a town in England which did not want to have a railway. Yet there were exceptions. The people of Northampton, for instance, preferred to stick by the old ways ; and that is the reason why travellers from London to Northampton had, for many years, to change carriages at Blisworth, and to go by a branch line which was made after the inhabitants of Northampton had repented of their folly ;

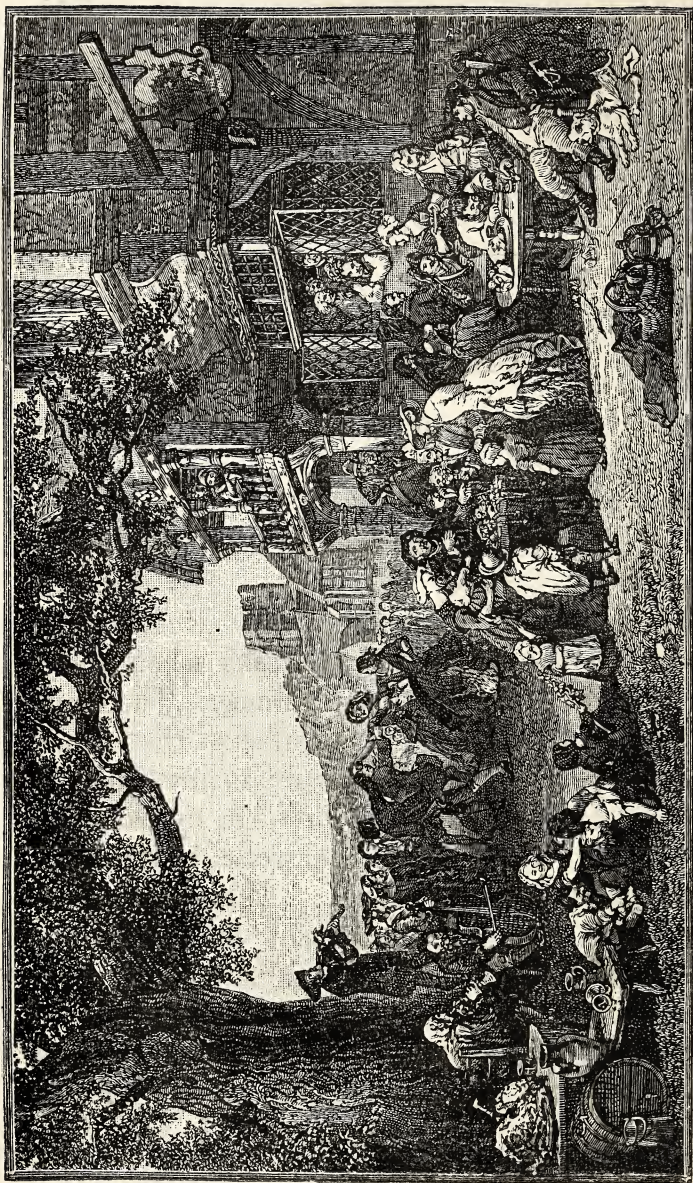
though at last the main line of the London and North-Western Railway was diverted from its old course to be brought through their town.

CHAPTER XLIV.

REIGN OF WILLIAM IV.

(1830-1837.)

1. The End of the Wellington Ministry.— In 1830 George IV. died. His brother William IV. was the new King. He had only been on the throne a few weeks when there was another Revolution in France. The king, Charles X., tried to govern against the wishes of the people. There was an insurrection in Paris, and the king was forced to fly from the country. His distant cousin, Louis Philippe, became King of the French. This news caused a good deal of excitement in England. People began to think that, if foreign nations could do so much, Englishmen might try to get rid of the rotten boroughs, and to send members to Parliament who would really



represent the people, instead of representing the great landowners. The Whigs were in favour of Parliamentary Reform. Many of them were themselves owners of boroughs, but they were ready to give them up for the good of the nation. A new Parliament was elected in which there were many more Whigs than in the old one. They would, perhaps, have been contented at this time without making any very great change, if the Duke would have agreed to do something. But the Duke declared that there ought to be no Reform at all. Whilst this dissatisfied the Whigs, the Tories were still angry with him because of what he had done for the Catholics. The majority of the House of Commons declared against him, and he resigned office.

2. The Reform Bill.—The next ministry was composed of Whigs and of the followers of Canning. The Prime Minister was Lord Grey. He and his colleagues resolved to bring in a Reform Bill. The Bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Lord John Russell. Neither friends nor enemies expected him to propose so great a change as he did. Sixty small boroughs, returning 119 members, were to be disfranchised entirely.

Forty-six more were to return only one member instead of two. Most of the seats thus at the disposal of the ministry were given, in almost equal proportions, to the counties and the great towns of England ; but a few were reserved for Scotland and Ireland. Both in towns and counties, a large number of persons were to be allowed to vote who had never had a vote before. If the Bill passed, the government of the country would be controlled by the middle classes, and no longer by the great landowners, as had been the case before. Inside the House of Commons the Tories were strong. When the House was asked whether it approved of the Bill or not, the majority which approved of it was only stronger than the minority which disapproved of it by a single vote ; and after this a majority voted that it should be altered in an important particular. The Government resolved to withdraw the Bill and to dissolve Parliament ; in order that the electors all over the country might say what they thought.

3. The Reform Bill rejected by the Lords.—There was very little doubt what the electors would think. Even under the old system of voting, there were the counties and large

towns which voted as they pleased ; and, in times of great excitement, the towns of a middle size would refuse to vote as they were bidden ; whilst some of the very small towns were under the influence of Whig landowners. From one end of the country to the other shouts were heard of ‘The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill.’ The new House of Commons, unlike the last, had an enormous Whig majority. The Reform Bill was again brought in, and was carried through the House of Commons. The House of Lords rejected it.

4. Public Agitation.—The news was received with a torrent of indignation. Meetings were everywhere held to support the Government ; and in some towns there were riots and disturbances. In the House of Commons, Macaulay,—a young man, afterwards famous as the historian of the reigns of James II. and William III.,—called on the House of Commons to stand forward to prevent the excitement degenerating into deeds of violence. ‘In old times,’ he said, ‘when the villeins were driven to revolt by oppression, when a hundred thousand insurgents appeared in arms on Blackheath, the king rode up to

them and exclaimed "I will be your leader ;" and, at once, the infuriated multitude laid down their arms, and dispersed at his command. Herein let us imitate him. Let us say to our countrymen "We are your leaders. Our lawful power shall be firmly exerted to the utmost in your cause ; and our lawful power is such that it must finally prevail." Outside Parliament there were men who thought that nothing but force would bear down the resistance of the Lords. At Birmingham a great meeting was held by a society called the 'Birmingham Political Union,' at which those who were present engaged to pay no taxes if the Reform Bill were again rejected. At Bristol there were fierce riots, houses were burnt, and men were killed.

5. The Reform Bill becomes Law.—Fortunately the Government and the House of Commons were as earnest as the people. A third Reform Bill, slightly altered from the former ones, was introduced as soon as possible, and carried through the Commons. Some of the Lords thought that they had resisted enough. It was known, too, that the King had consented to create new peers who

would vote for the Reform Bill. Upon this, many peers stayed away from the House ; and, in the spring of 1832, the Bill was accepted by the Lords and became law.

6. Abolition of Slavery, and the new Poor-law.—After so great a change the two parties began to take new names. Instead of ‘Whigs’ and ‘Tories,’ people began to talk of ‘Liberals’ and ‘Conservatives.’ The Liberals had a good deal of work to do. When the slave-trade had been abolished, the negroes who were in our West Indian Colonies remained as slaves. A law was now passed to set them free ; and a large sum of money was voted to compensate their masters for the loss. Then, too, at home, there was a change in the Poor-law, intended to prevent money being given to those who were idle. It was thought right that no one should be allowed to starve, but that people who would not work if they could, must not be living upon the money of those who were industrious.

7. Dismissal of the Government, and Peel’s first Ministry.—Besides these, a good many other right and wise things were done. For this very reason the Government became less popular than they had been. There are

always a large number of people who have an interest in things remaining as they are ; and they usually grow very angry when improvements are made. Besides the people who disliked the Government because it did right, there were also people who disliked it because it made mistakes. The Conservatives, too, were growing in favour. Peel, who led them in the House of Commons, was a prudent man, and many persons began to think that he could manage things better than the ministers could. Then the ministers disagreed amongst themselves. Some of them resigned. At last Lord Grey resigned ; and Lord Melbourne, one of the other ministers, became Prime Minister. The King soon afterwards dismissed Lord Melbourne, and made Sir Robert Peel Prime Minister. Peel dissolved Parliament, and a great many more Conservatives were elected than had been chosen to the last Parliament. But they were not enough to form a majority, and Peel resigned. Lord Melbourne came back into office.

8. Lord Melbourne's Ministry.—Lord Melbourne's ministry was not very successful. Its members were not good men of business ; and the Conservatives were nearly as numerous

as the Liberals in the House of Commons, and much more numerous in the House of Lords. People in the country were not very enthusiastic in favour of the ministry. Nevertheless, they did some good things. They reformed the municipal governments of the large towns, so that the mayors and town councillors would be elected by the greater part of their fellow-citizens, instead of being elected only by a few. Other things they did ; but whilst the Conservatives thought they did too much, there were some Liberals who wanted much more to be done, and thought they did too little. In 1837 William IV. died.

CHAPTER XLV.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF VICTORIA TO THE FALL OF THE MELBOURNE MINISTRY.

(1837-1841.)

1. State of the Country.—William IV. left no son to succeed him. His niece, Queen Victoria, ascended the throne. She was young, and was popular from the first. There

were difficulties enough before the Government, and the Government was not competent to meet them. Lord Melbourne was an easy-going man, who disliked the idea of taking trouble. Often, when he was asked how some difficult thing could be done, he asked lazily, 'Can't you let it alone?' There were large masses of people in England in misery. Both the agricultural and the manufacturing poor were in great distress. Wages were low, and the price of food was high. Soon after the end of the war with France, Parliament had passed a Corn Law, imposing a heavy duty on foreign corn. It was thought that, if corn came in from abroad, it would be sold cheaply; and that then the farmers and landlords could not get enough for their corn to enable them to make a livelihood, and that the land would go out of cultivation. In this way, bread was made very much dearer than it would have been if foreign corn had come in. Besides this, there was no care taken for the health of the poor. There were no inspectors to see that the factories were airy enough for the workers to breathe properly in. The hours of labour were very long, and women and children were put to work

much too hard for their strength. In the collieries, especially, women and children had to drag about heavy carts. In the country, the cottages of the labourers were often very unhealthy and over-crowded. Very few knew how to read and write, so that they had little chance of learning how to join together to help themselves.

2. The People's Charter.—When people are dissatisfied, the first thing they think of usually is, that, if they had political power, they could set everything right ; and so it was now. Large numbers of men supported what was called 'The People's Charter,' and were therefore called Chartists. The Charter demanded,—(1) manhood suffrage, (2) division of the kingdom into equal electoral districts, (3) vote by ballot, (4) annual Parliaments, (5) permission for every man to be elected whether he had property in land or not, (6) payment to members of Parliament. Two of these, the third and the fifth, have now become law. At that time, both the gentry and the shopkeepers were very much alarmed, when they heard what a number of Chartists there were. Some of these Chartists talked of getting what they wanted

by force ; and that frightened a good many people. The Chartists were, however, certainly right in wanting to be represented in Parliament. The Reform Bill had arranged the right of voting so that the shopkeepers had votes, but very few, if any, of the working-men. Still, it was probably as well that the working-men had to wait some years for their votes, and that many injustices were removed first ; so that, when they did get power, they did not come to it angrily, as they would have done at that time.

3. Post-Office Reform.—It was not likely that Lord Melbourne's ministry would have done much to relieve the general suffering. But one reform it effected which has given happiness to millions. One day, a young man named Rowland Hill was walking in the North of England. As he passed a cottage, a postman arrived with a letter. A girl came out, took the letter, and gave it back to the postman. In those days the charge for postage was very great,—a shilling or two being an ordinary charge, as the payment rose higher with the distance. The receiver of the letter, not the sender, had to pay,—though he need not take in the letter, unless he liked. In this instance, Rowland

Hill felt compassionate towards the girl, paid the postage, and gave her the letter. When the postman was gone, she told him that she was sorry that he had done it, as there was nothing written in the letter. Her brother had gone to London, and they had agreed that, as they were too poor to pay the postage, he should send her a plain sheet of paper folded up. She would always return it ; but, as long as these sheets of paper came regularly, she would know that he was in good health. This story set Rowland Hill thinking ; and he considered that it would cause much happiness if postage were reduced to a penny, whatever distance the letter went. The number of letters would so increase, that a large number at a penny, would bring in more than a small number at a shilling. It would be necessary to charge the penny to the sender, by making him buy postage-stamps ; as, when the number of letters became very great, the postman would not have time to stop at every door to collect pennies. This idea was much laughed at at first ; but, at last, the Government took it up. First of all, postage was reduced to fourpence ; and, after a little while, to a penny. The system of low payments and of postage-stamps, has since been

adopted by every country in the civilised world.

4. **Education.**—Soon after the Reform Bill, a beginning was made in helping the spread of education with the money of the nation. An annual grant of 20,000*l.* was given to assist in building school-houses. Two years after the Queen's accession, the grant was increased to 30,000*l.*; and its distribution was placed under the direction of a Committee of the Privy Council, called the 'Committee of Privy Council on Education,' in whose hands the management of the whole system of public instruction has rested ever since. Enough was done to make a beginning; and, from that time, it was understood that it was the duty of the Government to see that the people were educated.

5. **The Queen's Marriage.**—The marriage of the Queen called forth afresh expressions of loyalty from every part of the kingdom. Her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, who became her husband, was a man of varied learning and accomplishments. What was of greater importance, he brought with him an affectionate devotion to his young wife,—which caused him through his whole life to throw away all thoughts of personal ambition,—and a prudence and tact which made him her wisest

counsellor. He never considered anything to be beneath his notice ; and always did his best to understand thoroughly whatever was worth understanding at all. Once a man came to the palace to fit up a new glass chandelier. Prince Albert saw him and talked to him.



PORTRAIT OF PRINCE ALBERT.

When the man came away, he said that the Prince seemed to know more about chandeliers than he did himself. The Prince knew more about many things than Englishmen were aware of ; and he took great pains to encourage whatever he thought would be for the good of the people.

6. Lord Palmerston and the Eastern Question.—Soon after the Queen's marriage, there was very near being a war between England and France. The minister who managed Foreign Affairs was Lord Palmerston. He had had the same office in Lord Grey's ministry, and had then done all that he could to help the nations in Europe which were trying to be governed by kings with parliaments, instead of being governed by kings without parliaments. His attention had latterly been chiefly directed to the East of Europe. Turkey was growing weaker every year, because the Sultan did not know how to govern properly. The Turks had conquered that part of Europe more than four hundred years before, just as the Normans had once conquered England. But they did not unite with their subjects, as the Normans did with the English. Their subjects were Christians, and they were Mahometans. The poorer Turks were honest and brave, and would bear suffering so patiently, that they astonished Europeans who went amongst them ; but the rich Turks who governed, thought only of becoming wealthy, and did not mind what they did to grow richer than they were. Besides this, all Turks were very ignorant, and did

not care to learn how to govern properly. Their great enemy was Russia. The Russians had taken from them one province after another. Lord Palmerston was afraid lest Russia should gradually go on till it conquered all Turkey ; and he thought that Russia would then be so powerful as to be dangerous to other European states. The only way of stopping this that he could think of, was to keep the Turks in possession of all that they had got, in hopes that, some day or other, they would find out that it was to their own advantage to govern well.

7. Mehemet Ali driven out of Syria.—Whilst Turkey was growing weak, the ruler of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, had been growing strong. He was a resolute man with a well-disciplined army ; and, some years before, he had conquered Syria from the Turks. The Sultan sent an army to drive him out ; but he beat the Turkish army, and would have gone on to take Constantinople, if he had been allowed. Lord Palmerston was so anxious to save Turkey, that he persuaded Russia, Austria, and Prussia to sign a treaty to stop the Egyptians. As the French did not agree to this, they were left out of the treaty. They were so angry that a war very nearly broke

out between France and England. Happily the ill-humour cooled down. Mehemet Ali was driven out of Syria, and the Turks had one more chance of trying whether they could govern decently.

8. The Fall of the Melbourne Ministry.—

At last the Melbourne ministry came to an end in 1841. Having done so little for so many years, it suddenly announced an intention of doing very great things indeed. It was going to lower the duties on corn. The ministers did not gain anything by their proposal. People thought that they offered to make corn cheap, not because they cared about cheap corn, but because they wanted to remain in office. There was a dissolution of Parliament; and, in the new Parliament, there was a great majority against them. They resigned office, and Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE MINISTRY OF SIR ROBERT PEEL.

(1841-1846.)

1. Commercial Free Trade.—Peel was at the head of the Conservative party ; but he was bent on improving all that he saw to be amiss, though he took some time to find out all that was wrong. He and his followers were determined that the duties on corn should continue to be paid. He made some alteration in the way in which they were to be paid, but he did not mean to do any more. He thought that trade would flourish much more if the duties were lowered or taken off a great many articles of commerce. Every year he took off duties ; and it was found, that the more taxes he took off, the more was the amount of money paid in the taxes which remained. Manufacturers became richer, when they could buy articles to use in their factories without having to pay duties on them. The whole people was better off than before ; and, after this, there was much less misery than there had been.

2. The Invasion of Afghanistan.—Peel

had not been long in office when bad news arrived from India. Gradually since the day when Clive won the battle of Plassey, the English had conquered India. Their dominions now reached as far as the Sutlej,—one of the five rivers which form the great stream of the Indus. Some way to the westward was the mountainous country known as Afghanistan. The Afghans by whom it was inhabited were hardy and warlike. There was a panic amongst the English in India. It was believed that the Russians, who were making conquests in Central Asia, meant to invade India some day, and that Dost Mahomed, the ruler of Afghanistan, was their friend. It was determined to invade his territory, to dethrone him, and to set up another ruler in his stead. The British army defeated the Afghan troops, took the fortresses, and reached Cabul in safety. Dost Mahomed himself won a victory over some Indian cavalry in the British service, and then delivered himself up as a prisoner.

3. The Rising of the Afghans.—A British force remained to occupy Cabul, and Sir William Macnaghten had charge of all political arrangements. He fancied that all difficulties were at an end. Suddenly an insurrection

broke out in Cabul. Some of the most notable of the British officials were murdered. Still there were British soldiers enough to attack the Afghans with every chance of success. Unhappily, their commander, General Elphinstone, could not make up his mind to run the risk. He waited to see what would happen, and before long his position was hopeless. Food was failing; and the number of the enemies was increasing. Macnaghten and Elphinstone entered into negotiations with the Afghans. The Afghans offered to give them food, if they would give up the forts by which the British were protected. The forts were given up; and the Afghans learnt by this to despise their enemies. Akbar Khan, Dost Mahomed's son, invited Macnaghten to a conference, and treacherously shot him dead with a pistol which Macnaghten had given him the day before. The British officers, instead of resolving to fight to the last, entered into a treaty with the murderer, in which he engaged to protect the army on its way back to India.

4. The Retreat from Cabul.—The retreat began sadly. It was winter, and amidst those lofty mountains snow and ice lay thickly on the path. Akbar Khan did what he could to

protect the retreating soldiers, but he could not do much. Crowds of fierce Afghans were posted on the rocks and on the steep sides of the passes through which the army had to struggle, shooting down the fugitives as they passed. Amongst the soldiers were English ladies, some with children to care for. When they reached the end of a narrow pass through which they had to go, scarcely four thousand men were left out of fourteen thousand who had started from Cabul. To save the women and children they were delivered up to Akbar Khan, who promised to treat them kindly. He kept his word, and no harm happened to them. The men had to march on to death. They reached another narrow pass. The cruel Afghans were already on the rocks on either side, and shot them down without mercy. Very few lived to reach the other end. Those few pushed on, hoping to reach Jellalabad, where there was a British garrison. When they were still sixteen miles from Jellalabad only six were alive. The pony on which one of these, Dr. Brydon, rode was so worn out, and he himself was so utterly fatigued, that he lagged behind. The other five pushed on, and were slain by the Afghans. Believing that the last Englishman had been

killed, these Afghans went off to tell the tale. Weary and unnoticed, Dr. Brydon came on slowly. At last he reached Jellalabad. He was the one man who arrived to tell the tale of the great disaster.

5. **Pollock's March to Cabul.**—Jellalabad held out against all the Afghan forces that could be brought against it. A fresh army under General Pollock came to its succour. Then Pollock advanced to Cabul, and the prisoners were recovered. The place in which Macnaghten had been murdered having been destroyed, Pollock returned. Dost Mahomed was sent back, and allowed to reign without further interference.

6. **The Anti-Corn-Law League.**—At home something was done to lighten the toil of those who were least able to bear it. A law was made, forbidding the employment of women and girls in mines and collieries. By another law, it was forbidden to make children work in factories more than six and a half hours a day. Yet the great evil remained unredressed. Bread was dear, because a duty had to be paid on corn brought in from foreign countries. There were a few men in Lancashire who resolved to devote themselves to the work of procuring the

abolition of the Corn Law, in order that the food of the people might be brought in free of duty. First of these was Richard Cobden, a Sussex man, who had established himself in Manchester. He and his friends,—of whom the principal was John Bright,—established the Anti-Corn-Law League. It was a society formed for the purpose of lecturing and printing pamphlets, with the object of instructing the public on the evils which arose from the Corn Law. The League was soon busily employed, but it had many difficulties before it. Many of the working-class were suspicious of it, because it originated with master manufacturers ; they thought that the demand for the repeal of the Corn Laws, was a trick to make them forget the People's Charter. Naturally many of the landowners were against them, because they thought that they would be ruined if foreign corn was allowed to come in freely, and because they believed that if they were ruined all England would suffer ; and in this they had the farmers on their side. Yet, there were not a few amongst the landlords who were ready to take their chance of being ruined, as soon as they were convinced that the whole nation, and especially the poor, would suffer by the

maintenance of the Corn Law. The League persevered. It had a good cause, and it set forth its cause with plain and convincing arguments. It converted many persons, and it half converted Peel. What converted him entirely was the Irish famine.

7. **The Irish Famine.**—In Ireland the greater part of the population lived upon potatoes. The potato disease, unknown before, appeared, and made the greater part of the crop unfit for food. The mass of the Irish people found starvation before them. The Government tried to do what it could to provide work and pay for the hungry millions. Bountiful subscriptions were collected and sent over ; but all that could be done was not enough. Masses of Irishmen emigrated to America. In the face of such suffering, Peel felt that food could no longer be kept artificially dear. He proposed to the other ministers that food should now be allowed to come in without paying duty. The ministers would not agree to this. Lord John Russell wrote a letter on behalf of the opponents of the Government, declaring that the Corn Laws must be abolished. On this, Peel urged his fellow ministers, not merely to let corn come freely into Ireland for a time, but

to ask Parliament to abolish the Corn Laws altogether. When Parliament met, Peel proposed their abolition. Most of his own followers were desperately angry. A new party, known as 'Protectionists,' was formed. They treated Peel as a deserter who had come into office to uphold the Corn Laws, and remained in office to abolish them. The Protectionists, however, could not get a majority in the House. A certain number of Peel's followers were convinced by his arguments, and he had the support of the Liberals who had hitherto been his opponents. The Corn Laws were abolished, and free trade in corn was introduced. The food of the people was no longer to be taxed.

8. The End of Peel's Ministry.—Peel's ministry did not last much longer. The first time that the Liberals differed from him, the Protectionists joined them against him ; and Peel was left in a minority. He resigned office. He had done a good deed, but he was generous enough to remember that, if his had been the hand to accomplish the work, the thought of doing it had come from another ; and, in the last speech which he made as Prime Minister, he reminded the House of Commons that his success was due to Richard Cobden.

CHAPTER XLVII.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF LORD JOHN
RUSSELL'S MINISTRY TO THE END OF
THE CRIMEAN WAR.

(1846-1856.)

1. The European Revolutions.—The new Prime Minister was Lord John Russell. He had not been long in office, when troubles burst out over nearly the whole of the European continent. The year 1848 was one of general alarm. There was a revolution in France. King Louis Philippe was forced to fly, and a Republic was set up. In Italy, the kings and princes were forced to allow Parliaments to meet, and to make war on Austria, which ruled over a great part of Northern Italy. In Austria itself, and in Prussia, Parliaments were set up after insurrections.

2. The Chartists in London.—In England, the Chartists thought that now was the time to gain what they had so long demanded in vain. Their leader was Feargus O'Connor, a member of Parliament. He, and the leading Chartists, determined to gather in enormous numbers on Kennington Common, where

Kennington Park now is, and to carry with them a petition to Parliament on behalf of the Charter. They thought that Parliament would not venture to refuse to grant a request made by so large a number of men. They forgot two things : first, that it was against the law to go in procession to Parliament in such numbers ; and, secondly, that the great bulk of the English people was thoroughly resolved, that Parliament should not be bullied into changing the laws. The Government declared the plan of the Chartists to be illegal ; and invited any one who would, to come forward as a special constable,—that is to say, to act as a policeman for the day. Thousands of men did as they were asked ; and the Chartists discovered that the numbers of those who were against them were far greater than the numbers of those who were on their side. There were about 200,000 special constables. Besides, the Duke of Wellington had soldiers ready to act in case of necessity. At Kennington there were not more than 25,000 people, and many of these only came to see what was going on, without caring the least about the Charter. The procession of Chartists never tried to cross Westminster Bridge. The great petition was put into a cab and carried to the House of Commons.

Feergus O'Connor told the House that it was signed by 5,700,000 persons. The House took the trouble to have the signatures counted, and found that there were less than 2,000,000. On examining the signatures further, it appeared that whole pages were full of signatures written in one hand ; and, that many who had signed it had written, instead of their own names, those of Prince Albert, the Duke of Wellington, and other celebrated persons. Others had written down ridiculous names, such as Pugnose, Wooden-legs, and Bread-and-cheese. It was evident that all these did not care much about the Charter. Yet it must not be forgotten, that there were a great many people who did care about it ; and, that the working-men had gained, by their peaceable and orderly conduct, a fair right to ask that they should have some part in electing members of Parliament, and that their opinions about the government of the country might be heard.

3. The Death of Peel and the Great Exhibition. Russell's Government.—The time for giving votes to the working-men was not yet come. The minds of Englishmen were taken up, at home, with seeing that the Protectionists did not get power to bring back the

Corn Laws. People were better off than they had been before ; and, as one of Peel's followers said, 'they knew the reason why.' But they did not feel very enthusiastic in favour of the Government ; and it is probable that, if Sir Robert Peel had lived, he would before long have been back in office. Unhappily one day he fell from his horse in the Park, and was so injured that he died shortly afterwards. The year after Peel's death, Englishmen could think of nothing but the Great Exhibition in Hyde Park,—where the produce of the world was to be seen in the enormous glass house which was afterwards enlarged and removed to Penge Hill, near Sydenham. It was a useful undertaking, first thought of by Prince Albert ; and it served its purpose in teaching English manufacturers that they might improve their own work by studying the work of foreigners. Many people thought it would do more good than that. They fancied that because crowds of foreigners came to see London and the Exhibition, there would be no more wars. These people were soon to be disappointed. Two or three years before, the kings and princes of Europe had put down the people who had risen against them, and had, in most places, abolished the Parliaments

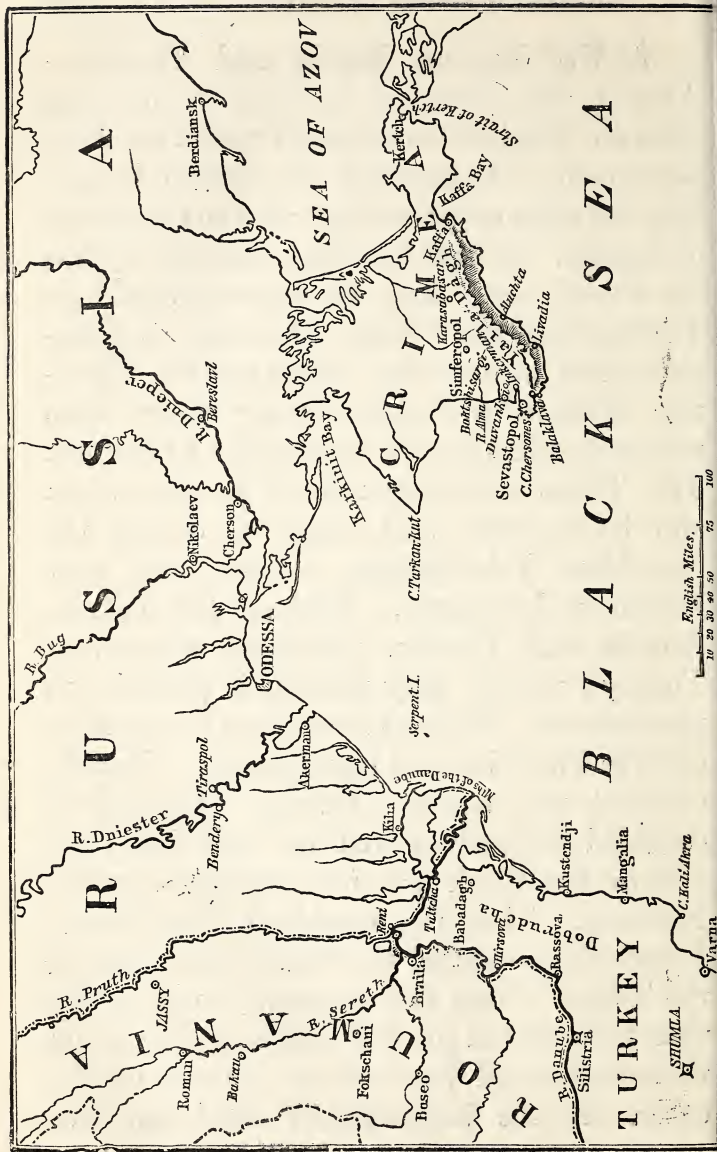
that had been set up. Shortly after the Exhibition was closed, Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the former Emperor, who had been elected President of the French Republic, put down the Republic, and marched soldiers into the streets of Paris to shoot any men who resisted him. He then asked the French people to name him President for ten years. They did so ; and not long afterwards they named him Emperor. He arranged that they should elect a Parliament ; but he took care that the newspapers should not print anything that he did not like, and that the ignorant people should be told freely what a great and wise man he was. In this way he managed to do pretty much as he pleased for some years.

4. The Derby Ministry.—Not long after the close of the Great Exhibition, Lord John Russell's ministry resigned, and the Protectionists came into office. Their leader was the Earl of Derby, and their chief man in the House of Commons was Mr. Disraeli. They dissolved Parliament, but the majority of the new Parliament was against them. They gave up Protection, and declared that they would accept Free Trade. It was of no use ; the majority would not support them, and they had to resign.

5. The Coalition Ministry and the Eastern Difficulty.—They were succeeded by a ministry known as the ‘Coalition Ministry,’ because it was formed of two sets of men,—the Liberals, and the followers of Sir Robert Peel. The Prime Minister was the Earl of Aberdeen. They had not been long in office when fresh troubles arose in the East. The Emperor of Russia, Nicholas, was of the same religion as most of the Christian subjects of Turkey. He and all his subjects would have been glad to set them free from the rule of the Sultan. He was also a man with a very strong will, who governed his own subjects very harshly, and who wanted to make his power felt outside Russia. He proposed to the English Ambassador at his Court, that part of the Christian provinces of Turkey should be set free and placed under his protection ; and he offered to let England take Egypt, and Candia too, if it liked to do so. Such a proposal was sure to shock the English ministers. They did not wish to see Russia gaining any more power in Turkey than it had had before ; and they did not think it honest, to settle the question by an agreement which would have allowed them to rob Turkey in the south, if they would shut their eyes whilst Russia robbed it in the north.

6. War between Russia and Turkey.—

After a time, Nicholas resolved to do alone, what the English Government would not help him to do. He required the Sultan to give him the right of protecting all the Christians of Turkey. If this had been granted, Nicholas would have been far more powerful in Turkey than the Sultan. As soon as a dispute arose between the Sultan and his Christian subjects, a Russian army would have marched in to take the part of the Christians. The Turks naturally refused to give way ; and Russia then sent troops to occupy the Danubian Principalities, which are now known as Roumania. England and France, Austria and Prussia, joined in supporting Turkey ; though they wished, if possible, to prevent war. Nicholas insisted on his demand, and the Turks insisted on refusing it. Turkey declared war against Russia. The Turks defended themselves well on land, but their fleet in the Black Sea was destroyed by the Russians. Then the combined English and French fleets entered the Black Sea, to defend the Turks. From that moment, it was certain that there would be war between Russia on the one side and England and France on the other. In the beginning of 1854 war was



declared. Austria and Prussia remained neutral.

7. The Invasion of the Crimea and the Battle of the Alma.—An English and French army was sent to Varna, in Bulgaria. The Turks, however, defended themselves so well on the Danube, that this army was not needed there ; and, before long, the Russian troops left Roumania. In the English ministry there was one man who was not content with this success. Lord Palmerston urged his colleagues to put an end to the power of Russia in the Black Sea. He was supported by the Emperor of the French. It was therefore determined to attack the great fortress of Sebastopol, in the Crimea, where the Russian navy was safe under strong batteries of guns. Orders were given to Lord Raglan, the English general, and to Marshal St. Arnaud, the French general, to invade the Crimea, taking with them a small Turkish force. They landed to the north of Sebastopol, with 64,000 men in all. As they marched southwards, they found the Russian army drawn up along the top of a hill beyond the river Alma. They crossed the stream and marched up the hill. There was not much skill shown by the generals on either side ; but in the end

the Russians were driven off, and the victory was won.

8. The Beginning of the Siege of Sebastopol.—Some people have thought that, if the conquerors had pushed rapidly on, Sebastopol would have been taken. Instead of that, they waited; and, marching round the head of the harbour, they attacked Sebastopol on the southern side. Even then some have thought that the allied armies might have forced their way in with a rush. But they did not try it, and prepared for a regular siege. Sebastopol was not to be taken in that way so easily. There was inside it a vast store of guns, and of everything needed for defence. What was more than this, there was a man of genius, General Todleben, inside it. He set to work and fortified the place. The guns of the allies were not enough to beat down the fortifications.

9. The Balaclava Charge and the Battle of Inkermann.—Then came the fight at Balaclava. The Russians attacked, and were driven back. An order was sent to Lord Cardigan, who commanded the light cavalry, to retake some guns which had been captured by the Russians. He misunderstood it, and thought that he was directed to charge into

the midst of the whole Russian army. The poet Tennyson has told the story how, when Cardigan gave the order, the brave men rushed to their death, knowing that all they could do would be in vain. They would not set an example of disobedience. Very few escaped. As a French general who was looking on said, 'It is magnificent, but it is not war.' Thousands more were to perish because the generals did not know how to lead their men, and the ministers at home did not know how to provide for them. At Inkermann there was a great battle. The few English troops were surprised in the early morning by thick columns of the Russian army. They held out for some hours, till the French came to their help. The Russians were driven back, and the allied armies were saved from destruction.

10. Winter in the Crimea.—The battle of Inkermann had been fought in the beginning of November. It has often been called a soldiers' battle. The English private soldiers and the officers of the English regiments were more intelligent, and more ready to act on their own responsibility, than the Russians were. But there was no skill in the general who commanded the army. He had fore-

seen nothing, and he provided for nothing. Neither he nor the ministers at home had provided for the winter. They had hoped to be inside Sebastopol before that came, and instead of that they were still outside, on the bleak hill-side. It was not all the fault of the general or the ministers. It had been long since England had engaged in a great war, and all the lessons of the last one had been forgotten. Wellington's skill and the bravery of his troops were remembered, but not his patient labour in providing all things necessary for the subsistence of the troops. The ministers had indeed sent many things, but they had not sent enough. A storm swept over the Black Sea, and wrecked vessels laden with comforts for the soldiers. The storm brought bitter cold to the men on shore. They had but tents to protect them against frost and snow; and the tents were often blown down, leaving them without shelter. The men fell ill by hundreds, and medicine and medical comforts were sent out from England. But there were constant blunders. The sick and wounded were sent to one place; the medicine was sent to another. Men at home, who had to provide the proper things, were so eager and excited to do what was

right, that they usually ended by doing what was wrong. Once a large amount of coffee was sent out to keep the soldiers warm. Those who sent it, forgot to have it roasted ; and they did not send out any machines for roasting it in the Crimea. Another time a large quantity of boots was despatched. Unfortunately they were all made to fit the left foot.

11. *The Hospital at Scutari.*—With great difficulty, the sick were sent away to a hospital at Scutari, near Constantinople. When they arrived there, there were doctors to cure them, but no nurses to attend to them. There had been no nurses in the Peninsular War. Sidney Herbert, the minister who had the charge of the war, saw that the best doctors could do but little without the help of women ; and he asked Miss Florence Nightingale, who had taught herself how the sick should be nursed, to go out, with other ladies who would volunteer, to help the poor men at Scutari. She at once agreed to go. With her help the hospital was brought into order. Many a sick man's life was spared, and many a dying man went peacefully to his rest, through the gentle help thus offered. What she did was a token for good in every way. One of the best things that are happening in

this time in which we live, is the discovery of the many ways in which women can help men in the work of life. In Queen Elizabeth's time, the great poet, Shakspeare, told about the lives of many good and beautiful women. Even Shakspeare himself could never have imagined Florence Nightingale. Good women, in his days, were gentle and kind to their husbands and brothers. Now, they can go out into the world and be gentle and kind to the poor, the sick, and the afflicted.

12. The Palmerston Ministry.—At home Englishmen looked on at all the misery and confusion in the Crimea with growing anger. They thought that somebody must be to blame, and they could not clearly make out who the somebody was. As soon as Parliament met, the Government was attacked, and forced to resign. From every side there were calls upon Lord Palmerston to be Prime Minister. It was known that his whole heart was in the war, and that he was a man of strong common sense and of resolute character. The arrangements for the army were gradually brought into order. Perhaps things would have improved even if Palmerston had not been there to direct them. Officials were beginning from many failures to learn their

duties. The winter, too, was passing away, and their work was easier than it had been. But it was something to have a man at the head of the Government who knew both how to work himself, and to make others do the same.

13. **The Fall of Sebastopol and the End of the War.**—During the summer which followed, the siege of Sebastopol was pushed on. The English army was in good condition. Officers and men were learning their work. But the French army was more numerous than ours. It occupied the best positions, from which the town was most easily attacked. One assault was made, from which both French and English were driven back. Then came another. The English attack failed; the French was successful. Sebastopol was taken. Through the next winter, the English army increased in numbers, and improved in discipline. But there was no more fighting. The Emperor Nicholas had died in the hard winter which did so much harm to the English and French armies. Now that Sebastopol had been taken, his successor, Alexander II., was ready to make peace. In the spring of 1856 peace was made. The fortifications of Sebastopol were destroyed, and Russia obliged to promise not to have a fleet in the Black Sea. The chief object of

the war had been to show Russia that she must not settle the affairs of the lands governed by the Sultan in her own way, and this had been gained. There was, however, a belief in England that the Turkish Government would improve, and govern those countries better. This was, however, a mistake. The Sultan and his ministers did not improve, or learn how to govern; and, after a few years, there were fresh troubles in Turkey.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE INDIAN MUTINY.

(1857-1858.)

1. **Troubles in India.**—In the year after the Crimean War was ended, the attention of men was fixed on a country still further to the East than Turkey. In 1857 exactly a hundred years had passed since Clive had won the battle of Plassey. The religion of the Hindoos, who form a great part of the natives of India, teaches many things which seem very strange to Englishmen. Among other things, they are taught that they will be defiled if they eat any part of a cow. By this de-

filament they will meet with much contempt from their fellows, and will suffer much after their death in another world. The bulk of the army in India was composed of Hindoos ; and it happened that an improved rifle had lately been invented for the use of the soldiers, and that the cartridges used in this rifle required to be greased, in order that they might be rammed down easily into the barrel. The men believed that the grease used was made of the fat of cows, though this was not really the case. There was, therefore, much suspicion and angry feeling among the native soldiers ; and when ignorant men are suspicious and angry, they are apt to break out into deeds of unreasoning fury. The danger was the greater because a great many of the native princes were also discontented. These princes governed states scattered about over India, though they were not allowed to make war with one another. Many of them had governed very badly, had ruined their subjects by hard taxation, and had spent the money they thus obtained in vicious and riotous living. The English Government in India had interfered with some of these, and had dethroned them, annexing their territories to its own, and ruling the people who had been their subjects by

means of its own officers. The consequence was, that some of the princes who had been left in possession of authority, thought that their turn would come next, and that they, too, would be dethroned before long. These men were therefore ready to help against the English, if they thought that they had a chance of succeeding.

2. The Outbreak of the Mutiny.—The place at which the soldiers broke out into open mutiny was Meerut. They fired at their English officers, killed some of them, and massacred such Englishmen as they could meet with. Then they made off for Delhi. At Delhi lived an old man whose ancestors had been the chiefs of the Mahometans who had once conquered India, and who had successively ruled India under the title of the ‘Great Mogul.’ Their descendant was without power and authority ; but he was allowed to live in state, in a magnificent palace, and had a large allowance of money, to support him in every luxury. The mutineers placed him at their head, and called him the Emperor of India. Happily the Governor-General of India was Lord Canning, George Canning’s son. He knew how to oppose the mutineers, and he sent for a large body of English troops

which happened to be on its way to China. Till they came, he must look to India itself for help. In the north-west of India lay the Punjab,—a province recently conquered ; and the best English troops were there. The Punjab was governed by Sir John Lawrence, one of the best and wisest of the English statesmen in India. He at once disarmed the Sepoys in the Punjab. Then he sent forth an army to besiege Delhi. That army was not composed of British troops only. The Sikhs, or natives of the Punjab, were a fierce, war-like race. Not many years before, they had fought hard for independence. Now they were reconciled to British rule, through the wise government of Lawrence and those who served under him. They despised the natives of the plains on the banks of the Ganges, and they were eager to serve against the mutineers. They formed a great part of the army which Lawrence despatched to the siege of Delhi. But, though the Sikhs and the English alike fought well, Delhi was a large city, and it was long before it could be taken.

3. Cawnpore.—The mutiny spread to Lucknow. Lucknow was the capital of Oudh, which had lately been annexed to the British dominions. The few Englishmen who

were in the town, were driven with their wives and children into an inclosed house and grounds known as the 'Residency.' There they held out against the raging multitude outside, till help might come. Worse things than this happened at Cawnpore. There were there about a thousand British men, women, and children. The old commander, Sir Hugh Wheeler, thought that he might trust a native named Nana Sahib, who lived near, as Nana Sahib had been particularly friendly to him. He did not know that Nana Sahib hated the whole British race, because the English Government had refused to acknowledge his right to an inheritance to which he laid claim. Wheeler retired into a hospital round which was a low mud wall. He had with him more than five hundred women and children and less than five hundred men. Nana Sahib arrived; but he came, not to help Wheeler, but to put himself at the head of the mutineers. The mutineers again and again made a rush at the low mud wall. Again and again they were beaten off; but swarms of them were firing all day, and many of the defenders fell under their bullets. The poor women and children had to crouch for shelter under the wall, with no roof over

their heads to guard them from the scorching rays of the Indian sun. There was but one well from which water could be drawn, and those who went to draw water there did it at the peril of their lives. The mutineers took care to direct their bullets upon it ; and many a man dropped slain or wounded, as he strove to fetch a little water to cool the parched mouth of wife or child. At last, Nana Sahib, finding that he could not get in by force, offered to let the garrison go safely away if the hospital were surrendered. The offer was accepted ; and all who still lived were taken down to the river and placed on board large boats, to float down the stream. The treacherous mutineers never meant that they should escape with their lives. They gathered on the bank, and shot them down. Some of the women and children who were still alive, were carried to a house, where for some days they were kept alive. Then murderers were sent in, and they were all massacred. Their bodies were thrown into the well from which their brothers and husbands had sought for water in the days of the siege. Of the whole number which had been with Wheeler at the beginning, only four men escaped to tell the miserable tale.

4. Clemency Canning.—It was no wonder that such news as this put all Englishmen in India into a fury of wrath. The tale was bad enough in itself ; but even more horrible things were told and believed than any which really happened. The talk was everywhere of revenge. Even here in England, men, whose lives were spent in deeds of kindness, could not refrain their tongues from uttering words of cruelty,—not merely calling out for the death and destruction of the actual murderers, but of the populations of whole cities, in which, as in Nineveh of old, there were many thousand persons so young and innocent that they knew not their right hand from their left. No wonder that Englishmen in India were even fiercer still. One man remained cool amidst the wild outcry. Lord Canning—‘ Clemency Canning ’ as he was called in derision by those who were asking for blood,—resolved that there should be punishment, but nothing more ; and that, as far as it was possible to make a distinction, the innocent should not suffer with the guilty. He bore the scorn of thousands. Let his name be held in honour ! It requires truer bravery to stand alone in resisting a multitude eager to do evil, than it did to stand ready for death behind the mud wall of Cawnpore.

5. The Recovery of Delhi and the Relief of Lucknow.—In the south of India there had been no mutinies ; and before long things began to look better in the north. At last Delhi was taken, and reinforcements began to arrive. The Englishmen cooped up in Lucknow were in desperate straits. Sir John Lawrence's brother, the good and brave Sir Henry Lawrence, was slain. Unless help could reach them speedily, they would be obliged to surrender from want of food, and then there would be another massacre like that at Cawnpore. As it was, the shot poured in amongst them, killing even the wounded in the hospitals. Mines exploded beneath the feet of the defenders, and the enemy rushed in like a tide. With a desperate effort the enemy was driven out. So it went on, day after day, and week after week. Sickness and death were busy among the little band, as well as the enemy's shot. Help was coming, though they knew it not. Havelock,—a brave pious soldier, who prayed, and taught his men to pray, as the Puritan soldiers did in the days of Cromwell,—was hastening to Lucknow with a small band, but one large enough for the purpose. He had fought his way steadily on, when another soldier, Sir James Outram, arrived. Outram was Havelock's

superior officer, and might have taken the command from him ; but he was too honourable a soldier for that. ‘To you,’ he wrote to Havelock, ‘shall be left the glory of relieving Lucknow, for which you have already struggled so much. I shall accompany you, placing my military service at your disposal,—should you please,—and serving under you as a volunteer.’ This happy band of brothers fought on to accomplish their mission of mercy. In Lucknow it was known that they were on the way, but it was hard to believe that they would come in time. At last the good news was told. Some one had heard the bagpipes of the Highlanders sounding the pibroch,—the martial music of their own country,—beyond the ranks of the foe. Havelock and Outram were there indeed ; and the sorely tried garrison was saved.

6. Sir Colin Campbell in India.—Havelock had succoured the garrison of Lucknow, but he had not men enough to beat off the enemy ; and he soon afterwards fell ill and died. Before that, Sir Colin Campbell, an old Scotch general, had been appointed Commander-in-Chief in India. Campbell had more men at his disposal than Havelock had had ; and bit by bit Northern India was reconquered. There

were terrible punishments; and, when peace was at last restored, the task of governing India was even more difficult than it had been before. Our children and grand-children will be able to say how that task has been accomplished.

CHAPTER XLIX.

FROM THE END OF THE INDIAN MUTINY TO THE PASSING OF THE SECOND REFORM BILL.

(1858–1867.)

1. The Reform Bills which did not pass.— Before the Indian Mutiny was suppressed, Lord Palmerston's ministry had come to an end. There was an attempt in Paris to murder the Emperor Napoleon, and a foreigner, living in England, was supposed to have had something to do with the plot. Whether he had or not, he was acquitted by an English jury. On this the French grew very angry with England, and called on us to alter our laws. No nation likes to be told what it ought to do; and Lord Palmerston was charged with having been too civil to the French

Government. He was beaten in the House of Commons, and he resigned. A Conservative Government took office, with Lord Derby at its head, and Mr. Disraeli as its leader in the House of Commons. This ministry did not last long. For some years there had been a growing feeling amongst many of the statesmen on the Liberal side that there ought to be a new Reform Bill, which would allow the working-men to vote ; and several attempts had been made to get such a Bill passed. But most people in the House of Commons did not care about a Reform Bill ; and people outside the House did not care much about it either. Their minds were too much taken up with other matters. They had had the European revolutions to think of. Then had come the establishment of the Empire in France ; and, after that, the Crimean War and the Indian Mutiny. Now that all these things were over, the Conservatives thought that they would bring in a Reform Bill too ; but they did not succeed any better than the other party. The Liberals said that it was a bad Reform Bill, and beat them in the House of Commons. Then there was a new Parliament, and the new House of Commons declared against them as the old one had done,

They went out of office, and Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister a second time. He did not himself care for a Reform Bill ; but, as some of his colleagues did, he let them bring one in. The new House of Commons did not care much more about it than the old one had done ; and so the Reform Bill came to nothing ; and, as long as Lord Palmerston lived, no new one was brought in.

2. The French War in Italy.—Perhaps there was very little thought about the Reform Bill, because every one was eagerly watching the things that were taking place in Italy. That country was cut up into little states ; and most of the dukes and kings who ruled in those states, ruled against the wishes of their subjects. The north-east of Italy, from Milan to Venice, was governed by the Austrians ; and Austrian armies were ready to march to support any of the kings or dukes against their own subjects. No wonder that Italians began to think that they would rather form one nation, and be able to manage their own affairs, without being meddled with by the Austrians. Brave men had long been forming schemes to set Italy free ; but the Austrians were too strong for them, and for years nothing was done. In the year 1848, the

year of the European revolutions, Charles Albert, the King of Sardinia, who ruled over the north-west of Italy, declared himself ready to fight for Italian independence. He attacked the Austrians; but the Austrians were too strong for him, and he was beaten, and forced to resign his throne. His son Victor Emmanuel, who succeeded him, longed for the day when he might carry out his father's design. At last in 1859, two years after the breaking out of the Indian Mutiny, he was able to do what he wished. Napoleon offered to help him. A French army, with the Emperor at its head, came into Italy, and defeated the Austrians in the two great battles of Magenta and Solferino. The Italians hoped that the Austrians would at last be driven out of Italy. It was perhaps as well for them that they had to wait a little longer. No one trusted Napoleon. He thought it a very fine and noble thing to help the Italians; but he wanted to get some advantage for himself. The Prussians threatened to join the Austrians, and the French made peace. The country about Milan was given to Victor Emmanuel. Venetia, as the country about Venice was called, was left to the Austrians.

3. The Kingdom of Italy.—It was difficult

to say what was to be done with the rest of Italy. The Emperor's plan was, that the dukes should remain where they were, and live in a friendly way with Victor Emmanuel. But the dukes had run away, and their people did not want to have them back. The people asked that Victor Emmanuel should be their king, and so the central part of Italy was joined to the north-west. Savoy and Nice had to be given to France. A year or two later, the new kingdom had a further increase. Garibaldi landed in Sicily with a thousand men, to attack the kingdom of Naples. The King of Naples did not know how to make himself popular amongst his subjects; and his kingdom fell like a house of cards. Victor Emmanuel now ruled in Naples as well as in Turin. The next question was, whether the dominions of the Pope were to become part of the new kingdom. Many Catholics from other nations, especially Frenchmen and Irishmen, came to fight for the Pope. An Italian army attacked them and defeated them. Rome itself and the country round Rome was only saved to the Pope by the French Emperor, who insisted on keeping a French garrison at Rome. Victor Emmanuel ruled over all Italy except over Rome and Venetia.

4. The Volunteers.—The English Government had been very friendly to Italy all through these changes. Most Englishmen were glad to hear that there was another independent nation in Europe, and they were glad that, at all events, the French had not gained any part of Italy for themselves. In England there was a great suspicion of the French Emperor. He had all sorts of schemes in his head ; and no one could tell what he was likely to do next. Lord Palmerston thought the best thing to be done was to prepare for the worst. Already, before Lord Palmerston came into office, young men engaged in all kinds of employments had offered to form volunteer regiments, to be ready to resist invasion if it came. Every encouragement was given to them ; and the Volunteer Corps were established as a permanent part of the British army.

5. The Commercial Treaty with France.—In Palmerston's ministry the Chancellor of the Exchequer,—that is to say, the minister who had to make all arrangements about taxation,—was Mr. Gladstone. Year after year he tried to carry out the work, which Peel had left uncompleted, of improving the system of taxation by removing burdensome

duties. He did not like to see the growing risk of a quarrel between England and France; and he gladly forwarded a plan for inducing the Emperor of the French to agree to a commercial treaty, by which English goods should be admitted into France upon payment of no more than a low duty, and French wines and other articles should be admitted in the same way into England. The treaty was arranged by Cobden, who went to Paris to talk it over with the Emperor. He and Mr. Gladstone hoped that if the two nations traded with one another more, they would be less inclined to quarrel.

6. **The Civil War in America.**—Whilst the treaty with France was being made, events beyond the Atlantic drew the attention of every one in Europe. The United States of America were divided into two parts. In those of the South, some millions of black slaves worked for their masters, mostly in producing sugar and cotton. In the North there were no slaves. The free states flourished and increased in wealth and population. The slave states did not flourish at all. The slaveowners thought they would be better off, if they could go to fresh soil further west, and carry their slaves with them. The

free states declared that they might keep their slaves where they were already, but they should not take them anywhere outside the slave states which already existed. In 1860 there was an election of a new President,—the officer who stands at the head of the American Republic for four years. This time Abraham Lincoln was elected, a man who was determined not to allow the fresh land outside the slave states to be cultivated by slaves. The Southern States declared themselves independent, and formed a government of their own under the name of the ‘Confederate States.’ The Northern States kept the old name of the United States, and resolved that the Confederates should not be allowed to separate. A terrible war followed, which lasted for four years.

7. The Blockade Runners and the Privateers.—English feeling took different sides. The upper classes and the merchants were mainly on the side of the South. The Northern navy was strong, and blockaded the ports of the South, to prevent any goods being carried in. Many merchants in England fitted out quick steamers as blockade runners, to carry arms and powder and shot and other stores to the Confederates, and to bring away

cotton to England. In time, the Confederates thought that it would be an excellent thing, if they could buy from their English friends armed ships, and have them sent out from English ports. English shipbuilders did as they were asked, took the money, and built ships which plundered and burnt the merchant vessels of the United States. One of the most famous of these was the *Alabama*, which did an enormous amount of damage. England had afterwards to pay heavy compensation, because the Government had not stopped the vessel's sailing, as it ought to have done.

8. The Cotton Famine.—To one part of England the American War brought terrible suffering. Masses of men in many of the large towns in the north, depended for their daily bread upon making cotton goods. The cotton used in this manufacture came at that time almost entirely from the Southern States. There was no possibility of bringing it from those states, as the blockading ships of the North would have stopped it on the way. All that could be done, was done, to get supplies of cotton from Egypt and India and other parts of the world. That which came from these sources was not nearly so good as the American cotton had been; and even of the bad

cotton there was not enough. The cotton famine, as it was called, stopped the mills, or caused them to work at short time. Thousands of persons ready to work to earn their livelihood, were thrown out of work through no fault of their own. In many a house there was want and hunger. That want and hunger were nobly borne. Not only were the sufferers patient under their misfortune, but they were not to be tempted to speak evil of the Northern States, whose blockade was the cause of their misery. They believed that the slaveowners of the South were in the wrong ; and that, if the war went on long enough, the men of the North would win—and that they would set free the slaves. The working-men of the north were right. The slaves were declared to be free by the Northern States early in the war, and, after four years of desperate fighting, the Southern States were overpowered. The English working-man had done something for himself without thinking of himself at all. He had shown that he was capable of standing up for that which he believed to be a righteous cause, however much he might suffer through it. It was impossible to deny to such men as these the rights of citizens. They were surely worthy of having votes

to send members to Parliament to make the laws, after showing that, under the most trying circumstances, they knew how to obey the laws. A Parliamentary Reform which should reach them could not now be long in coming.

9. *The Last Days of Lord Palmerston.*—It was well known that Lord Palmerston would not hear of Parliamentary Reform. Mr. Gladstone, however, declared in its favour ; and Mr. Gladstone was likely to have great influence soon. In 1865 a new Parliament was elected. Before it met Lord Palmerston died. He was eighty years of age, and kept brisk and active to the last. He was the most popular man in England, always cheery, and ready to speak a friendly word to every one. But there was work now to be done which needed the hands of younger men.

10. *The Ministry of Earl Russell.*—The successor of Lord Palmerston was not a young man. Earl Russell,—who had once been the Lord John Russell who had advocated Parliamentary Reform not long after the battle of Waterloo was fought, and who had had much to do with the first Reform Bill,—became Prime Minister, to advocate a second Reform Bill ; the object of which would be to give votes to the working-men, as the first

Reform Bill had given votes to tradesmen. Mr. Gladstone was the chief person in the House of Commons. A Reform Bill was proposed, but the House of Commons did not care about it, and would not have it. The ministers at once resigned office. They thought that it was so important to reform Parliament, that they would not keep in office unless they could do this. Lord Palmerston had stayed in office after proposing a Reform Bill ; but they cared about Reform, and Lord Palmerston did not.

11. The Conservative Ministry and the Second Reform Bill.—A Conservative ministry came into office. The Prime Minister was Lord Derby ; but the most important minister was Mr. Disraeli. All at once it appeared that, though the greater number of the members of the House of Commons did not care about Reform, the working-men did. There were meetings held in different parts of the country in its favour. In London a large body of men made up their minds to hold a meeting in Hyde Park, to make speeches about Reform. The Government tried to shut them out, but they broke down the railings and held their meeting ; and the Government found out that it had no right to shut them out. Mr.

Disraeli saw that the working-men were now in earnest, and that they were determined to have Reform. He determined to be the person to give it to them. When Parliament met he presented a Reform Bill, which did not satisfy anybody. When that would not do, he presented another Reform Bill, which was accepted. When it became law, every householder who paid poor-rates in the larger towns had the right of voting ; and so had almost every one living in the country in a house worth 10*l.* a year. The working-men would now be consulted on the making of the laws.

CHAPTER L.

FROM THE PASSING OF THE SECOND REFORM BILL TO THE END OF LORD BEACONSFIELD'S MINISTRY.

(1867-1880.)

1. Irish Troubles.—The year in which the Reform Bill was passed was one of trouble in Ireland. An association was formed,—the members of which were known as ‘Fenians,’—for the purpose of separating Ireland from

England. This association had many friends in America, where many Irish were living. An attempt was made to rise in insurrection in Ireland itself ; but the insurrection was not likely to succeed, as the Irish had scarcely any arms, and no discipline. It happened that, when the Irish collected in the hills, it began to snow ; and they were unable to remain in the open country. The attempt was easily put down. At Manchester some Fenian prisoners were being carried in a prison van, when some Irishmen rushed at the van, to set them free. A shot was fired, and a policeman was killed. Some of the Irishmen were tried for murder, and hanged.

2. The Irish Church and the Gladstone Ministry.—These things had a great effect on many of the Liberals, and especially on Mr. Gladstone. He thought that it was not enough to keep the Irish down by force, and that it would be right to find out whether the Irish had anything to complain of, in order that it might be remedied. The first thing which he proposed to do was to disestablish and disendow the Irish Protestant Church. The greater part of the Irish people were Catholics, and had to support their priests out of their own pockets. At the same time, the law required

Irishmen, whether they were Protestants or not, to pay money to support the Protestant clergy. These Protestant clergymen, too, were treated with more honour by the Government than the Catholic priests were, as if their Church had been the Church of the country. Mr. Gladstone proposed to put an end to this, and to leave both the Catholic and the Protestant clergy to be paid voluntarily by their own congregations. Mr. Disraeli, who was now Prime Minister,—as Lord Derby had become too ill to attend to business,—objected to this; but the House of Commons agreed with Mr. Gladstone. Parliament was dissolved, and the new Parliament was on Mr. Gladstone's side. He therefore became Prime Minister.

3. The Irish Church Act and the Irish Land Act.—The first thing that the new ministry did was to pass a law to disestablish and disendow the Irish Protestant Church. The next thing that it did was to pass a law about Irish Land, trying to do what was just between landlords and tenants. Some years afterwards there were great complaints in Ireland that enough had not been done. But, at all events, the law was an honest attempt to remedy what was wrong.

4. **The Education Act.**—Many changes, too, were made in England. The greatest of these was the introduction of a new system of education. For many years the Government had been enabled by Parliament to do more and more for education ; and it had given large sums of money to the managers of schools. These grants by the Government were made on condition that the children were properly educated, and that a sum at least equal to the grant were raised locally by school fees and subscriptions. A law was now made to enable the people who were deficient in school accommodation, to elect a School Board having authority to draw upon the rates for the building and maintenance of such schools as the Committee of Privy Council thought to be necessary. The School Board had also authority to compel parents, who were neglecting the education of their children, to send them either to a Board or some other efficient school.

5. **The Ballot Act.**—Another new thing, was the introduction of voting by ballot at elections. Before this, every man who voted had to give his vote openly ; and many persons were afraid to vote as they thought right, for fear of offending either their employers or the people amongst whom they lived. Now,

no one knows how they vote. It was thought at the time that the ballot would prevent voters from taking bribes. This, however, has not been the case ; and we can only hope that men will some day be ashamed of taking money for their vote. Not much more than a hundred years ago, noblemen and gentlemen took money, or something that was worth money, for their vote in Parliament ; and perhaps a hundred years hence, some writer will be able to speak of it as a wonderful thing, that there had been a time when some people took money for their votes at elections.

6. The Franco-German War.—Whilst these things were being done in England, great events were taking place on the Continent. In 1866 there had been a war between Prussia and Austria, in which Prussia was completely successful. Italy had helped Prussia, and obtained the country about Venice at the end of the war ; so that Austria was now entirely excluded from Italy. The French grew extremely jealous of Prussia ; and, in 1870, the Emperor Napoleon picked a quarrel with the King of Prussia. In the war which followed, all Germany took part with Prussia. The Germans invaded

France, and defeated the French armies in several great battles. The Emperor Napoleon was taken prisoner, and France again became a Republic. Then siege was laid to Paris. After bearing much hardship, the great city was starved out, and surrendered. France had to give up some of her provinces. The King of Prussia became the German Emperor ; and the little states of Germany united together to form the German Empire. The Italians, too, took possession of Rome ; and there was now, at last, a United Italy under one king.

7. The End of the First Gladstone Ministry.—At home the Gladstone ministry had been very busy ; and, as often happens, people got tired of seeing so many changes made. Even some who had supported the Ministry were dissatisfied with its conduct ; and when, in 1874, a new Parliament was elected, it had a large Conservative majority. Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister, and remained in office for six years.

8. Mr. Disraeli's Ministry and the Turkish Disturbances.—After some time there were fresh troubles in Turkey. Some of the Christian inhabitants rose against their oppressors ; and, in one place, the Turks mas-

sacred men, women, and children. The European states sent ambassadors to Constantinople, to see what could be done ; but, though they gave some good advice to the Sultan, the Sultan, as is always the case, refused to take it. All the states, except Russia, thought there was no more to be done. Russia declared war against the Sultan, to make him do what he had been advised to do. The war lasted about a year. The Russians had great difficulties, and lost a great number of men ; but in the end they beat the Turks thoroughly. They made a treaty with the Sultan, by which a great part of the provinces of Turkey in Europe were taken away from the Sultan and given to the people who lived in them. Mr. Disraeli, who had now become Earl of Beaconsfield, thought that Russia would make the people in these provinces obey its orders, and would in this way become too powerful. He and the English Government insisted that Russia should consult the other European states and make a new treaty ; and he was prepared to go to war, if this were not done. This made him very popular in England, though there were many people who did not wish to have a war with Russia. At last Russia gave

way ; and the different states sent ambassadors to Berlin, where a new treaty was drawn up, by which, though many of the Christian peoples were set free, some, who had been taken away from under the rule of the Sultan by the Russian treaty, were placed under it again. There have been more troubles since ; and they are not likely to end, as long as the Sultan continues to rule ; because it does not seem possible to teach him to govern well, or to make him care to learn.

9. The End of the Conservative Ministry.

—After this, there were wars in other parts of the world. There was another invasion of Afghanistan, and a war in Zulu Land. In 1880 there was again a new Parliament. This time the people thought that the Conservative ministry was too fond of war ; and the new Parliament had a large Liberal majority. Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister a second time.

CHAPTER LI.

THE SECOND GLADSTONE MINISTRY.

1. Troubles about Irish Land.—The attention of the new ministry was first directed to the disputes which had arisen between landlords and tenants in Ireland. In 1881 a law was passed which was intended to put an end to crimes of violence, and another law was passed which was intended to settle what rent ought to be paid. There were in the House of Commons a certain number of Irish members who were called Home Rulers, who were so called because they thought that Irish difficulties would never be really at an end until there was a Parliament meeting ‘at home’ in Ireland to make laws for that country. There were also in Ireland some persons who were so angry with the English Government that they were ready to commit crimes to take vengeance on it, and in 1882 some of these men murdered two officials, Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. After this there was an alteration in the laws made against crime, and matters in Ireland were somewhat improved, though there was still trouble in store.

2. Invasion of Egypt.—In 1882 an

Egyptian officer named Arabi, with the help of the army, got all the power in the country into his hands, and left Tewfik, who was the Khedive or governor of Egypt, without any authority at all. Some people in Europe were afraid lest there might be a massacre of Christians in the East unless Arabi were put down, and others, who had lent money to the Egyptian Government, were afraid lest they should not get it back. There was much talk of putting Arabi down, and at last the English Government did it. Alexandria was attacked and taken, and a battle was fought at Tel-el-Kebir, in which Arabi was defeated. He was transported to Ceylon, and Tewfik's government was re-established. Tewfik was, however, not powerful enough to rule without the assistance of the English, and the English soldiers have remained in Egypt ever since, whilst English advisers have helped Tewfik to improve the condition of the people.

3. The Soudan and the Mahdi.—The part of Africa to the south of Egypt is commonly known as the Soudan, or the country of the blacks. It had formerly been ruled by the Egyptian Government, but it had recently been under the power of a man who gave himself out as the Mahdi, or the prophet who was to re-establish the Mahomedan religion in its

greatness and purity. In 1883 he destroyed a whole army sent against him under Hicks Pasha, an Englishman in the Egyptian service, and the English Government advised Tewfik not to attempt to reconquer the Soudan.

4. Gordon and the Soudan.—In different parts of the Soudan there still remained Egyptian garrisons, and it was thought in England that if the Mahdi conquered them he would massacre every man, woman, and child in them. English people were therefore most anxious to save them, though it was difficult to reach them without a very large army, and also difficult to send a large army into so hot a country. General Gordon offered to try whether he could not save the garrisons without any army at all. He was a fine soldier, and a man who never spared himself when he thought it possible to do good to his fellow-creatures. He had at one time governed the Soudan well and justly, and had been revered by the people as one who had saved them from misery. In 1884 he went almost alone to Khartoum, the chief city of the Soudan. It soon appeared that he was not strong enough to overpower the Mahdi. The English Government hesitated before they sent an army to relieve him, and when at last the army approached Khartoum, a treacherous

native opened the gates. The followers of the Mahdi poured in, Gordon was murdered, and the English army was obliged to retreat without saving anyone. It had come too late.

5. The third Reform Act.—In consequence of its failure to relieve Gordon, the Government became very unpopular in England. Before it reached its end, it was able to agree with the Conservatives about a third Reform Act. The country was divided into districts, each of which returned a single member, and the franchise in the counties was lowered to the same level as that at which it stood in the boroughs. In this way the agricultural labourers and the artizans who lived outside borough-towns acquired a vote. In 1885 the Government was turned out of office, and was succeeded by a Conservative Government under Lord Salisbury. This government however did not hold office long, and was followed by the third Gladstone Government in the beginning of 1886.

6. Conclusion.—So far we have come in the story of our country. What lies before us we cannot tell ; but this we can tell, that England has prospered most when she has most sought to do that which it was her duty to do. She has a heavy burden to bear. Her people go forth to the ends of the world, they

meet with men of other races, and often with men savage and ignorant. We can try to help these, and we cannot help them unless we understand what they are and what they want. We must not try to make all men exactly as ourselves, but be glad if they grow better and happier in their own way. At home, too, we must not be impatient. We do not all think alike, and we do not all act alike. Let us learn to say plainly what we think, and to do boldly what we believe to be right. But let us honour those who differ from us, if they differ honestly. We boast of our freedom in England, and we do well. But let us make up our minds that, if we have freedom, we will use it for the common good. No man liveth to himself. He is bound to use the powers of his mind and body for the help of his brother man. Freedom is good because it sets us at liberty to make the best of ourselves for the sake of others. *Free* England has been, on the whole, a *wise* England. It has kept itself from violence and fighting at home, because it has left all difficult matters to be settled by argument and not by war. Besides this, it is for all of us to remember, that, if our laws are good, it is because great men, and men

who were honourable without being great, made them good. If we are not savages and heathens, it is because our ancestors have handed down to us a better life. Each generation has been better in something than the one before it; and it is for us to make the generation in which we live, better than the last one, for the sake of our children who will come after us. We need not be very great, or very learned, to help in this work. Each little child, as he or she grows up, can do something. Every time we choose the good and avoid the evil, we set a good example to others. Thousands of small right acts done, come to a great deal when they are taken together. As we read what men of old have done for us, let us think of their deeds as the poet Browning thought when he was sailing off the Spanish coast. His mind dwelt on Nelson and the old warriors who had fought and died there for their country. Trafalgar was in front and St. Vincent behind. Then, as he turned to think of himself, the words that rose to his lips were

Here and here did England help me; how can I
help England? Say

Whoso turns as I, this evening, turn to God to
praise and pray.

ANALYSIS
OF THE
OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.
WITH NOTES.

CHAPTER XXXII.

WILLIAM III. 1689-1702. ANNE, 1702-1714.

WILLIAM AND MARY, 1689-1694.—*William*, son of William, Prince of Orange, and of Mary, daughter of Charles I.; *Mary*, daughter of James II.

I. The Revolution.—Parliament declared that (1) James, by misgovernment and leaving the kingdom, had given up the throne. (2) Mary and William were to be joint sovereigns. (3) At death of either the survivor should reign; at death of both, unless Mary left issue, the crown should descend to Mary's sister, the Princess Anne.

Toleration Act was passed, allowing Dissenters (but not Catholics) to worship in their own chapels.

II. War with Scotland.—Lord Dundee took up the cause of James in the Highlands, and defeated William's forces at Killiecrankie, but was shot himself.

Massacre of Glencoe.—William concluded a peace with Scotland; Highland chiefs to swear to live peaceably; oath to be taken by a certain day. Mac Ian, of Glencoe, was not punctual, and the governor of Scotland (the Master of Stair) caused his clan to be massacred.

III. War in Ireland.—Throughout the Commonwealth, and the reign of Charles II., the Irish had been badly treated. James II. allowed them their own way, and they drove out the English.

Siege of Londonderry.—Londonderry still held by English. James besieged it; it was bravely defended by Walker, a

clergyman, and after great hardships was relieved. General Kirke raised the siege.

Battle of the Boyne.—William crossed over to Ireland and defeated James, who fled to France:

The Irish again defeated at Aghrim; Limerick captured.

IV. War with France.—Lewis, King of France, wanted to invade England and restore James. The English and Dutch fleets defeated by French off Beachy Head. The French prepared to invade England; but their fleet was destroyed by Admiral Russell off La Hogue.

V. Liberty of the Press.—Up to this reign no book was allowed to be published until an officer, called the ‘licenser,’ had given his leave. Now this rule was abolished.

Death of Mary from small-pox.

tol-e-ra'tion: permission, without approval.

dis-cus'sion: debate; argument for and against.

mas'sa-cre (-ker): indiscriminate killing; general slaughter.

Mas'ter of Stair: Scotch title = the eldest son of Lord Stair.

ex-tir'pate: *to root out*; to exterminate; to destroy.

treach'er-ous: faithless; perfidious; false.

sur-ren'der: *deliver over*; yield up itself.

gnaw'ed: chewed.

Teign'mouth (*tane-*, locally *tin-*): a small port in Devonshire.

tri-umph'ant-ly: with joy and exultation.

Traf-al-gar'(or *-al'-*): a cape on south of Spain, west of Gibraltar.

Neth'er-lands: *Low Countries*; Flanders, Holland, Belgium.

vacc-in-a'tion: inoculating with (or communicating) cow-pox as a protection against small-pox.

phys-i-cian (-ish-): a prescriber of *physic*; a doctor.

pre-de-ces'sors: those that preceded; here, the former sovereigns of England.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

WILLIAM III. as sole monarch, 1694–1702.

Continuation of the War with France.—William besieged and captured Namur,—the first town lost by Lewis. Peace of Ryswick. William acknowledged by Lewis King of England, Dutch guards dismissed.

Assassination Plot.—Forty Jacobites plotted to assassinate William; plot discovered; some conspirators executed.

Spanish Succession.—Charles II., King of Spain, was an invalid and not likely to live long. Lewis, King of France, had married Charles's eldest sister, and claimed the crown of Spain for his son. William objected to the descendants of Lewis being Kings of Spain. [Spain then held great part of Italy, the Netherlands and West Indies.]

Partition Treaties.—*First.* Most of the Spanish lands were to be given to a young Bavarian prince; this prince, however, soon died. *Second.* Southern Italy and Lorraine were to be given to Lewis's grandson Philip; the rest, including Spain, to the Archduke Charles, the younger son of the Emperor.

Charles, dying, left his dominions to Philip. William wanted to compel Lewis to carry out the Partition Treaty, but Parliament at first refused money. Lewis, on the death of James II., acknowledged the Old Pretender as James III. Parliament at once granted William money and forces to carry on a war against Lewis.

Act of Settlement.—I. If William died without children the crown to go to Anne, sister of Mary, and daughter of James II. After Anne, to the Electress Sophia, the grand-daughter of James I., the next heir who was a Protestant.

Death of William, 1702.

as-sas-sin-a'tion : secret murder.

as-so-ci-a'tion : union; combination.

arch'i-lect (*ark-*) : one who plans or designs buildings.

am-bi-tious (*bish-*) : desirous of power, honour &c.

ab'so-lute-ly : completely; indispensably.

par-ti'tion (*-tish-*) : act of *parting* or dividing.

in'so-lence : rudeness; haughty contempt; impertinence.

im-á-gined (*-aj-*) : conceived; thought; fancied.

col'lar-bone : *neckbone*, connecting the breastbone to the shoulder.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

ANNE (1702–1714), second daughter of James II.

I. War of Spanish Succession.—**Causes.**—(1) The determination of Lewis to put his grandson Philip in possession of the Spanish dominions, in violation of the Partition Treaty; and (2) his recognition of the Pretender as James III.

Armies Engaged.—English, Dutch, and Germans, commanded by Duke of Marlborough, against the French and Spaniards.

Engagements.—Sir George Rooke captured Gibraltar. Marlborough totally defeated French at Blenheim in Bavaria, 1704; at Ramilies in Belgium, 1706; at Oudenarde in Belgium, 1708; and at Malplaquet in North France, 1709.

Treaty of Utrecht.—**Terms.**—(1) France engaged to acknowledge Anne and the protestant succession. (2) Philip, grandson of Lewis, retained Spain and the Spanish colonies, but the crowns of France and Spain were not to be united. (3) Spanish lands in Italy and Netherlands given to Archduke Charles, now emperor of Romans.

II. The Union with Scotland.—English Parliament had passed an Act settling the crown on the Electress Sophia; Scotch Parliament refused to do the like; to avoid risk of separation of crowns, English offered Scotch free trade with England, and the exercise of their own laws, and the presbyterian form of worship, if they would consent to a union of Parliaments. The Act of Union passed 1707.

III. The Whig and Tory Ministries.—**The Whigs.**—(1) All through the reign were in favour of the 'War of Spanish Succession.' (2) After the unsuccessful trial of Sacheverell, for preaching 'non-resistance,' the Whigs were dismissed.

The Tories were eager for peace. They made a treaty, which was signed at Utrecht. The chief Tory ministers were Harley (Earl of Oxford) and St. John (Viscount Bolingbroke).

Blen'heim (-hime).

Ram-i-lies' (-lees).

Oude'narde (ood'nard).

Mal-plaq'uet (-plack'ā).

e-co-nom'i-cal-ly: frugally;
cheaply; inexpensively.

ex-cheq'uer (-check'er): the department of Government that deals with revenue and expenditure.

U'trecht (U'trekt): a city of Holland.

CHAPTER XXXV.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I., 1714–1727.

George II., 1727–1760.

George III., 1760–1820.

George IV., 1820–1830.

William IV., 1830–1837.

Victoria, 1837.

GEORGE I. (1714–1727), son of Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I.

I. Events in Early Part of Reign.—The Tory ministers were removed and the Whigs put in power.

The rebellion in favour of the Old Pretender, James Francis Edward, the son of James II. The Pretender landed in Scotland, but the rebellion was put down and he retired to the Continent.

II. The South Sea Bubble.—Owing to the increase of trade, people began to invest their money rashly. Many trading companies started; one of the most popular was the *South Sea Company*, formed to carry on trade with South Africa and Spanish America. People formed such exaggerated expectations of profit that 100*l.* shares were sold for 1,000*l.* After a time, the shares fell to a low price. Thousands of families were ruined. Sir Robert Walpole, the first Prime Minister of England, and a Whig, by his wise acts somewhat remedied the disaster.

Parliamentary corruption; wholesale bribery at elections and in the House.

GEORGE II. (1727–1760), son of George I.

I. Walpole's Administration.—(1) He attempted to put an end to smuggling by an Excise Bill; but it was rejected. (2) Against his own judgment he was led to declare war against Spain to avenge the ill-treatment of British smugglers and prevent the searching of English vessels by Spaniards. (3) Defeat of English, and resignation of Walpole.

Broad-Bottomed Ministry formed by Henry Pelham (Prime Minister) and his brother the Duke of Newcastle.

II. Rebellion under Young Pretender, Charles Edward, son of James Francis, the Old Pretender, and grandson of James II. He landed in Scotland; was joined by the Highlanders; marched to Edinburgh; obtained many followers, and defeated the Royal forces at Preston Pans. He then invaded England; marched to Derby; but found little support and was obliged to retreat. At Falkirk, near Stirling, he defeated the Royal forces under General Hawley; but was routed at Culloden, in Inverness, by the Duke of Cumberland. Charles escaped to the Continent; lived a dissipated life.

ab'ro-ga-ted: repealed; annulled.
 prej'u-dice: judgment formed beforehand; groundless ill-feeling; bias.

cor-rup'tion: rottenness; impurity; bribery.

smug'gling: importing or exporting goods without paying legal dues.

ri-dic'u-leous : exciting *ridicule* or derision ; absurd.

en-thu-si-as'tic : full of zeal ; ardent.

de-spise' : to look down on with contempt ; to scorn.

tar'tan : checked woollen stuff.

kilt : a short petticoat.

dis'ci-pline : *instruction* ; order ; subjection to control.

ver'min (*a worm*) ; noxious animals, as rats, mice, moles &c.

dis-si-pa'tion : waste ; excess ; evil living.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

LAST SIX YEARS OF GEORGE II. (1754-1760).

Spread of the English ; thirteen colonies along Atlantic coast of N. America ; collisions with French of Lower Canada.

Seven Years' War.—Loss of Minorca ; execution of Byng ; William Pitt 'the Great Commoner' made War Minister. Wolfe's expedition to Canada ; capture of Quebec ; conquest of Canada. Hawke's victory over French at Quiberon.

French and English in India.—The English had forts and factories at Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta ; the French had a settlement at Pondicherry ; the rest of India was under native princes. Dupleix, the French governor, secured friendship of some native princes, and intrigued to expel the English. Arcot captured by British under Clive. Calcutta seized by Surajah Dowlah ; the 'Black Hole' avenged at Plassey by Clive, 1757, and the foundation of our Indian Empire laid.

in-ter-fe'rence : molestation ; the meddling of others.

oc-ca'sion-al-ly : now and then ; infrequently.

Al'le-gha'ny Mountains : a chain of mountains in the United States, parallel with, but 250 miles from, the Atlantic coast.

im-me'di-ate-ly : *nothing intervening* ; at once.

pre-cip'i-tous : *forming precipices* ; very steep.

sur-ren'dered : gave themselves up.

Du-pleix (*-plā*).

Su-ra'jah ('a' as in father).

an-tag'on-ist : opponent ; *one who contends with another.*

CHAPTER XXXVII.

GEORGE III. (1760–1820), grandson of George II.

End of the Seven Years' War.—Pitt resigned office, and peace was made with France by the *Treaty of Paris*. England regained Minorca and kept Canada.

Events which led to the American War.—Grenville, Prime Minister; Stamp Act passed, requiring Americans to pay for stamps on law papers, as we do in England now. The Americans refused to pay, and Grenville was obliged to resign office. Lord Rockingham, Premier; repeal of Stamp Act. Rockingham succeeded by Pitt, now Earl of Chatham.

Chatham became seriously ill; during his absence duties were imposed on tea &c. going to America. Chatham advised the repeal of the duties, and was dismissed by king. Grafton and then Lord North succeeded. A cargo of tea shipped to Boston, thrown overboard. The English Parliament then passed an Act forbidding ships to unload at Boston, and another declaring that Massachusetts should be ruled by men appointed by the king.

The American War of Independence.—Election of a Congress; George Washington appointed leader of the American forces. Stubborn fight, and defeat of Americans, at Bunker's Hill, near Boston. Americans issued *Declaration of Independence*, declaring they were a free nation and would submit to George no longer. New York seized and held till the end of the war. English, under General Burgoyne, forced to surrender at Saratoga. The French and then the Spaniards declared war against England, and helped the Americans. Surrender of English army under Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, 1781. Resignation of North, 1782. Rockingham Prime Minister, and after his death, Shelburne. A peace arranged, and signed at Paris, acknowledging independence of the United States, 1783. The defeat of the French and Spanish fleets by Lord Rodney, and the successful defence of Gibraltar, saved British interests in Europe and India.

con-sci-en'tious: regulated by regard to conscience; just.

can'di-date: one who seeks to obtain an office.

dis-guis'ed: dressed so that they might not be known.

Mas'sa-chu'setts. **Sar'a-to'ga.**

des'pic-a-ble: deserving to be despised; contemptible.

her'o-ism: the qualities of a hero; courage; intrepidity.

ap-o-plex'y: a fit or stroke causing loss of sensation.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

1783-1789.

Ministerial Changes.—Shelburne was turned out of office through a quarrel with Charles James Fox, who voted with the Tories, and then formed with Lord North a **Coalition Ministry**. After a short time, the king dismissed the Coalition ministry, and made William Pitt, son of Chatham, Prime Minister, though only twenty-four years old. He held the office from 1784 to 1801, and again from 1804 to 1806.

There was less corruption in Parliament than formerly, and people outside took more interest in politics.

Commercial Treaty with France.—Adam Smith's book, the 'Wealth of Nations,' had shown that regulations which restricted commercial intercourse were pernicious; Pitt made a treaty with France to lower duties so as to encourage trade and friendliness.

The Slave Trade.—The horrors of the slave trade having been revealed by Thomas Clarkson, Pitt and Wilberforce tried to induce Parliament to abolish it, but failed. Wilberforce and others continued the agitation, and the trade was abolished in 1807.

Improvements.—About this time, great improvements were made in farming and the rearing of cattle; James Brindley constructed the Bridgwater Canal; Hargreaves invented the spinning-jenny, which Arkwright improved; and Crompton invented a still better spinning machine called the *mule*; Watt and others greatly improved the steam-engine, which led to the building of factories on the northern coal-fields.

or'a-tor: a public *speaker*; an eloquent man.

a'mi-a-ble: *lovable*; worthy of love.

co-al-esce' (-es'): *to grow together*; to unite.

co-al-i-tion (-ish-): union.

il-lu'min-a-ted: lit up in token of rejoicing.

lux-u'ri-ous: dainty.

mill'wright: a mechanic who builds and repairs mills.

en-gin-eer': one who plans public works, as railways, bridges &c., often called a 'civil engineer.'

ma-chin'e-ry (-sheen-): *machines* in general; mechanical contrivances.

mule (*the offspring of a horse and an ass*): a mongrel; a spinning machine, so called because it *combined* the advantages of Hargreaves' and Arkwright's inventions.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

1789-1802.

FRENCH REVOLUTION.—Its Causes.—For a great many years the lower classes had been cruelly treated by Government and nobles; the Government taxed them unjustly,—the nobles plundered and ill-used them.

Its history: War declared.—(1) ‘National Assembly’ abolished payments by peasants to country gentlemen, and detained Lewis XVI. a prisoner in Paris. (2) As Lewis was found to be plotting with Prussia and Austria, a Republic was established and Lewis executed. (3) Pitt tried to avert war, but the English were in a panic, the French were irritated by plots and invasion, and war broke out. (4) In France hundreds of persons suspected of favouring the enemy were executed; others fled the country. (5) In England and Scotland persons who spoke in favour of reforms were accused of sedition, and some were unjustly punished. (6) The French joined by Spaniards and Dutch.

Progress of War.—By land, French were everywhere victorious. At sea, Lord Howe defeated them in ‘Battle of 1st June;’ Admiral Jervis defeated Spaniards at St. Vincent (where Nelson won great renown); Admiral Duncan defeated Dutch at Camperdown; and Nelson the French at the Nile.

Meantime, British Fleets at Spithead and the Nore mutinied on account of ill-pay and ill-treatment, but returned to duty on promise of redress.

Irish Rebellion of 1798.—The Irish had long been cruelly treated, and though they had a separate Parliament, it did not represent the Irish people, since none but protestants could sit in it; and, until now, none but protestants had votes. George III. defeated Pitt’s plans for redressing Irish grievances. At length the Irish rose in rebellion; great atrocities on both sides; rebellion suppressed with great severity. The members of the Irish Parliament were then bribed to vote for union with British Parliament, which accordingly took place.

War continued by England alone.—Admiral Parker, with Nelson, defeated the Danes at Copenhagen. Abercrombie won a great victory over the French army at Alexandria. The defeated troops returned to Europe, and a Peace was agreed to at Amiens, 1802.

- guil'lo-tine** (*gil'o-teen*): an instrument for beheading, named after *Dr. Guillotin*, who invented it. It was similar to the *Scotch maiden*.
- sus-pi-cious** (*-pish-*): distrustful; inclined to doubt or *suspect*.
- mu'ti-ny**: a rising of soldiers or sailors against their officers, or against the government; a sedition; a revolt.
- Mam'e-lukes**: originally Circassian slaves who were converted into light horse troops.
- Mus'sul-mans**: *Moslems*, or Mahometans.
- pyr'a-mid**: a building having an angular base and triangular sides which meet in a point at the top.
- Bo'na-parte** (formerly *Bo'napar'te*). **Pha'raoh** (*fairo*).
- Lord Lieu-ten'ant**: a chief magistrate representing the monarch; a *viceroi*.
- bul'wark**: a fortification or rampart; any means of defence.
- le-vi'a-than**: a sea monster mentioned in Book of Job.
- tel'e-scope**: an instrument which helps us to *view* objects at a *distance*.
- con-fla-gra'tion**: a great *burning*, or fire.

CHAPTER XL.

1802-1808.

Renewal of War.—By *Peace of Amiens* England was to give up Malta; but Bonaparte seized part of Italy and sent troops into Switzerland, and then England refused to give up Malta. War renewed; 10,000 English travellers imprisoned in France; preparations to invade England. France joined by Spain.

Pitt, who had resigned in 1801, again made Prime Minister, 1804. Bonaparte, the 'Emperor Napoleon,' combined French and Spanish fleets for invasion of England; fleets destroyed by Nelson off Cape Trafalgar; death of Nelson, 1805. England saved from invasion.

Ministerial changes.—Death of Pitt; formation of 'Ministry of all the Talents' under Lord Grenville; abolition of slave trade, 1807; ministry dismissed by George for proposing to admit catholics to offices in the army and navy. The Portland ministry; Canning Foreign Secretary.

The War continued.—Scheme of Napoleon to use Danish fleet against England, foiled by the bombardment of Copenhagen and capture of Danish fleet by English.

Bou-logne (*boo-lone'*).

Tou-lon' (*too-*).

Traf'al-gar', or Traf-al'gar.

vol-un-teers': those who undertake any duty *voluntarily* (that is, of their own free will), and from a sense of public duty.

dil'i-gent-ly: with steady application; industriously.

rec'on-ciled: made friends; restored to union.

col'league (*-leeg*): one who is united with another in the discharge of some duty; an associate, or co-adju'tor.

CHAPTER XLI.

1808-1814.

The Peninsular War.—Napoleon seized Lisbon, and then compelled Charles IV., King of Spain, to surrender his crown. Napoleon gave it to his own brother Joseph.

Spain applied to England for help, which was given by Canning. Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, sent with English forces, defeated the French at Vimie'ra. Sir John Moore marched into Spain hoping to be joined by the Spaniards; was disappointed, and compelled to retreat; the French following, were defeated at Corun'na. Moore was killed during the battle. Wellesley's victory at Talave'ra, and retirement to the 'Lines of Tor'res Ve'dras' in Portugal. Failure of the French. Formation of 'gueril'las.'

Failure of the Walcheren expedition.

Wellington captured the two fortresses, Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, which opened his way into Spain. He defeated the French at Salamanca, and entered Madrid, but was obliged again to retreat to Portugal.

Russian Campaign.—Napoleon captured Moscow; the inhabitants set fire to the city; the French were compelled to retreat in the depth of winter. Out of 400,000 only 20,000 survived.

Wellington's victory at Vittoria, and capture of St. Sebastian.

Napoleon defeated at Leipzig by combined armies of Russia, Prussia and Austria, which then marched on Paris. Wellington invaded France on south, and won a victory at Toulouse. Paris was seized by the allies. Napoleon abdicated and was sent to Elba, and peace was signed at Paris, where Lewis XVIII. became king.

Alb-ue'ra (-wa-).
 Bad-a-joz' (-hose').
 Ba'yonne' (bah'yon').
 Bor-deaux' (-do').
 Cas'tle-reagh (-ray).
 Ci-u-dad' (the-oo-).
 Rod-ri'go (-ree-).
 Fuen'tes (fwen'-).
 d'On-o'ro (donyo'ro).
 Leip'zig (lipe'-).
 Mas-se'na (-say-).
 Scheldt (skelt).
 Strahan (strawn).
 Tou-louse (too'looz').

Wal'cher-en (-ker-).
 Pen-in'su-lar: pertaining to a
peninsula, especially to
 Spain and Portugal.
 un-prin'ci-pl'd: immoral; bad;
 profligate.
 cam-paign': the period of each
 year during which an army
 keeps the field; the duration
 of one expedition.
 ex-tra-or'din-ary: *beyond*
ordinary; unusual; special.
 ab-dica'ted: gave up the
 throne; resigned.

CHAPTER XLII.

1814-1820.

Waterloo.—Within a year Napoleon escaped from Elba, returned to France, and was again made Emperor, 1815.

England and Prussia at once sent armies into the Netherlands. Napoleon defeated the Prussians under Blucher, and then attacked Wellington at Waterloo. The English defended themselves stubbornly; in the afternoon the Prussians arrived to help them; the French were routed; Napoleon was deposed and sent to St. Helena, a rocky island in the South Atlantic, where he died.

General Distress.—The war had involved very heavy taxation and left a debt of 800,000,000*l.* The country was impoverished; many manufacturers and farmers were ruined, and the labourers and artisans were almost starving. Hence there were riots and tumults, and demands for reform. 'March of the Blanketeers.' The Manchester Massacre, and 'The Six Acts.' Death of George III., 1820.

suc'coured: helped; supported.
 crim'i-nal law: the law dealing
 with crimes (murder,
 theft &c.)

yeo'man-ry: a volunteer body
 of cavalry, embodied in 1797
 and partly disbanded after
 the peace of 1814.

hus-sars': a regiment of light

cavalry. (The name is Hungarian.)

peace'a-ble, griev'ously. [Note
 that the 'e' is retained at
 the end of 'peace-' and not
 at the end of 'griev-'. Why
 is this?]

se-di'tious (-dish-): calculated
 to excite insurrection.

CHAPTER XLIII.

GEORGE IV. (1820–1830), eldest son of George III.

Cato Street Conspiracy.—The continued suffering, and the refusal of the Government to grant reforms, led Thistlewood and others to form a plot for killing the ministers. It was discovered and the leaders were executed.

Changes in the Government.—(Lord Liverpool, Premier.) George Canning became Foreign Secretary, and Sir Robert Peel, Home Secretary, 1822. *Canning*, without going to war, saved Portugal from the interference of Spain, and acknowledged the independence of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and other South American states. *Peel* carried some reforms in the criminal law, greatly reducing the number of crimes punishable with death. *Huskisson*, another minister, considerably reduced the customs duties levied on imports,—the first step towards *free trade*.

Catholic Association.—The catholics were still excluded from office. An association was formed under Daniel O'Connell to get this reformed.

Parliamentary Reform.—The urgent need for this seen by Lord John Russell, who proposed to take members from boroughs which had disappeared or become unimportant, and to give them to the great centres of trade which had been growing up lately; but he was for the present defeated.

Independence of Greece.—The Greeks had for years been fighting against Turkey to gain their independence. The atrocities committed by Turkish troops led England, France, Austria, and Russia, to send ships which destroyed the Turkish fleet at Navarino; Greece, soon after, was acknowledged independent.

Relief of Dissenters and Catholics.—Whilst the Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister, Lord John Russell succeeded in carrying a bill, which enabled dissenters to hold municipal or Government offices. At last, through fear of civil war in Ireland, similar relief was given to catholics by the Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829.

Improvements.—New Police introduced by Peel; improved system of road-making by Macadam; railways and locomotives by George Stephenson.

dis-sat'is-fied: discontented ; displeased.

as-so-ci-a'tion: a society of persons formed to promote some object.

rep-re-sen'ta-tive sys-tem: the body of laws regulating the election of members to Parliament.

ré-com-mend'ed (*reck-*): introduced favourably. But it has here the stronger meaning that they were required, or commanded to vote for him.

con-stit'u-en-cy: a body of electors entitled to return one or more than one member to Parliament.

un-i-ver'sal suffrage: the poli-

tical right of each person to vote for a representative to Parliament.

dis-fran'chised: deprived of some political right,—as, in this case, of representation in Parliament.

cor-po-ra'tion: a body of persons authorised by law to act as one person, as in the government of corporate towns ; a town council.

e-man-ci-pa'tion: act of setting free ; removal of disabilities.

lo-co-mo'tive: a travelling steam-engine ; a railway engine.

pro-pri'e-tors: owners ; shareholders.

CHAPTER XLIV.

WILLIAM IV. (1830–1837), son of George III.

Reform Bill.—Wellington defeated and succeeded by Lord Grey. The first Reform Bill failed in the Commons ; after a dissolution, a second was carried through the Commons by Lord John Russell, but rejected by the Lords ; indignation of the country, riots and bloodshed ; the king was at last frightened, and undertook to make new Peers to pass the bill through the Lords. The Lords then gave way, and the bill, being introduced a third time, passed in 1832. The bill disfranchised many small boroughs, and gave members to populous districts in counties, and to large towns.

Whigs now began to be known as *Liberals*, and Tories as *Conservatives*.

Other Reforms.—The reformed Parliament quickly abolished slavery in the British possessions, and paid the slave owners twenty million pounds as compensation. It also passed a new poor law, intended to check people living on the rates when they were able to work.

dis-ap-prov'ed: disliked;
thought unfavourably of.

in-dig-na'tion: anger; resentment.

de-gen'er-a-ting: falling; passing; becoming worse.

in-fu'ri-a-ted: enraged; maddened; put in a *fury*.

com-pen'sate: to make amends for loss sustained.

con-serv'a-tive: one opposed to change.

lib'e-ral: one who advocates freedom and reform.

CHAPTER XLV.

1837-1841.

VICTORIA (1837), daughter of Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.

The People's Charter.—Great distress amongst lower classes; wages low, food dear. **Corn Law** placed a heavy duty on foreign corn imported,—this made bread dear. The *People's Charter* was a document intended to set forth the political changes necessary to bring about better times; those who accepted it were called *Chartists*. It demanded (1) Manhood Suffrage; (2) Equal Electoral Districts; (3) Vote by Ballot; (4) Annual Parliaments; (5) Abolition of Property Qualification for Members of Parliament; (6) Payment of Members. The third and the fifth of these have since been granted. Rowland Hill introduced penny postage, 1839.

The Eastern Question.—Turkey in a wretched condition; menaced by Russia in the North, attacked in Syria by Mehemet Ali, ruler of Egypt; Lord Palmerston persuaded Russia, Austria, and Prussia to join England in driving Mehemet out of Syria, which was done.

com'pe-tent: *suitable*; able; of sufficient ability or strength.

ag-ri-cul'tu-ral poor: those engaged in tilling the ground.

com-pas'sion-ate: pitiful.

Saxe-Co'burg: a duchy of central Germany.

ac-com'plish-ments: attainments, especially ornamental ones.

chan-de-lier' (*shan-de-leer*): a frame with branches for holding candles.

res'o-lute: determined; firm of purpose.

CHAPTER XLVI.

1841-1846.

The Afghan War.—Cause.—It was thought that the Russians, who had made advances in Central Asia, intended to invade India; and Dost Mahomed, the ruler of Afghan'istan', was friendly to them.

The British invaded Afghanistan, and occupied Cabul

The country rose against the English, and compelled them to retreat to India. Out of 4,000 who left Cabul only one reached the English garrison at Jellalabad.

General Pollock advanced from Jellalabad to Cabul and recovered the British prisoners. Dost Mahomed restored.

The Anti-Corn-Law League established by Richard Cobden and John Bright. Its objects were to instruct the people in the evils of the corn laws, and to obtain Free Trade in corn.

Repeal of Corn Laws.—Hastened by the famine in Ireland which resulted from failure of the potato crop. Peel, though a conservative, carried this measure; for which his followers deserted him; Lord John Russell became Premier.

ne-go-ti-a'tion: treating;
holding intercourse for the
purpose of coming to an
agreement.

con'fer-ence: consultation;
meeting for discussion.

dis-as'ter: a calamity; a mis-
fortune.

pamph'-let: a small book,
consisting of one or more
sheets of paper stitched to-
gether, but not bound.

or-i-gin-at-ed (-rij-): started;
commenced; had its begin-
ning.

main'te-nance: act of *maintain-*
ing; continuance.

pro-tec'tion-ist: one who
would *protect* native land-
lords, farmers &c. from
foreign competition, by plac-
ing duties on imports.

CHAPTER XLVII.

1846-1856.

Popular Movements.—In 1848 most of the countries of Europe were disturbed by popular movements. The French got rid of their king, and established a Republic under the presidency of Louis Napoleon. In Italy, Austria, and Prussia,

Parliaments were established. The Chartists in England again agitated for their six reforms; but the greater part of the working classes remained peaceable and orderly. After a time, Napoleon succeeded in suppressing the Republic and making himself Emperor; and in some other countries the Parliaments were abolished and the people's hopes crushed out.

The Crimean War.—The Emperor Nicholas of Russia wished the Christians in Turkey to be placed under his protection. Neither England nor Turkey would agree to this. Nicholas insisted, and Turkey, supported by England and France, declared war against Russia; destruction of Turkish fleet. Invasion of the Crimea. Battle of the Alma, and defeat of the Russians. Siege of Sebastopol, lasting a year; Russian attacks on English at Balaklava and Inkerman repulsed. Great sufferings of troops from want of food and shelter during the winter. Hospital founded at Scutari, and placed under Miss Nightingale. Sebastopol taken; its fortifications destroyed. Peace concluded in the spring of 1856.

sig'na-ture: *sign* or *mark*; the name of a person written by himself.

Tod'le-ben (-lā-).

prin-ci-pal'-i-ty: territory of a *prince*; the country which gives title to a *prince*.

remained neu'-tral: took neither side; did not join in the contest.

to act on their own re-spon-si-bil'i-ty: to act without waiting for orders from their officers; to judge for themselves what was best to do.

sub-sis'tence: livelihood; means of support.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

1857–1858.

THE INDIAN MUTINY.—The religion of the Hindoos teaches them that it is a sin to eat any part of a cow. A rifle (the Enfield) was introduced which required the use of greased cartridges. A report was circulated that the grease used was the fat of cows. Some native princes incited the people to rebellion. The Sepoys at Meerut murdered their English officers, massacred all the English they could find, and seizing Delhi, proclaimed a descendant of the great Mogul emperor. Mutiny spread to Lucknow; garrison besieged; fearful massacre at Cawnpore. Relief of Lucknow by Havelock; his

death; reconquest of Northern India by Sir Colin Campbell, commander-in-chief, and Sir Hugh Rose.

an'ces-tors: forefathers.

de-scend'-ant: offspring, however remote.

Sikhs (*seeks*). Oudh (*owd*).

clem'en-cy: mildness; gentleness; mercifulness.

de-rí-sion (*-rízh-*): mockery; contemptuous laughter.

re-in-force'ments: additional troops.

mar'-tial: belonging to war; warlike.

CHAPTER XLIX.

1858-1867.

Italian Unity.—For many years Italy had been broken up into a number of small states—kingdoms, grand duchies &c. The people were very much oppressed, so that they longed for freedom and unity. The north-east of Italy was in the hands of the Austrians; and, as the unification of Italy would have involved the loss of this province, the Austrians supported the tyrants in the other provinces. Sardinia was the best governed part of Italy, and in 1848 its king, Charles Albert, tried to free the other states; but Austria was too strong for him, and he had to resign. In 1859, his son, Victor Emmanuel, got the help of Napoleon. The Austrians were defeated at Magenta and Solferino; and Milan and neighbourhood were added to Sardinia. This encouraged the people of other districts, and frightened their dukes &c. so that they ran away. Mainly through the influence of a great patriot, *Garibaldi*, one state after another was joined to Sardinia, till Victor Emmanuel ruled all Italy except Rome and Venetia. In 1866, Austria being at war with Prussia, Italy tried to seize Venetia. The Austrians were defeated by the Prussians, and, at the peace, had to resign Venetia. Some time later, the French troops were withdrawn from Rome; and in 1870 it was occupied by the Italians, and became the capital of Italy, which was now entirely united.

England and France.—The English being alarmed as to the intentions of Napoleon, commenced in 1859 the formation of volunteer corps,—a movement which has steadily grown.

In 1860, Mr. Cobden, on behalf of the Government, arranged a *Commercial Treaty* with France, which greatly lowered the customs duties between the two countries, increased their trade, and promoted more friendly relations.

Civil War in America between the Northern (free) and Southern (slave-holding) States, caused by the desire of the latter to introduce slavery into new States further west. The Northern States having a navy were able to blockade Southern ports. But English merchants fitted out quick steamers to 'run the blockade,' carrying stores to the Confederates and bringing away cotton. The Confederates also got war-ships built in England, which preyed on the shipping of the United States. [For this England afterwards paid nearly 3,500,000*l.* damages.] In 1862 the Northern States decreed the abolition of slavery, and in 1865 the rebellion was crushed and the Union restored.

Cotton Famine.—The scarcity of cotton during the war caused what is known as the 'Cotton Famine.' Many thousands of operatives in Lancashire were thrown out of work for a long time, and suffered very great hardships with wonderful patience.

schemes: plans; designs; purposes.

sus-pi-cion (*-pish-*): mistrust·doubt.

corps (*core*): a *body* of soldiers; a division of an army. [The singular and the plural are spelt alike, but the plural is pronounced *cores*.]

con-fed'er-ate: *leagued together*; allied. [The general sense of *united* and *confederate* is the same; but

united indicates a *closer* bond of union.]

block-ade', *v.*: to *block up* by troops or ships, so as to prevent persons or ships getting in or out.

block-ade' runners: ships which, either by superior speed, or under cover of darkness, manage to elude the blockading ships.

ad'vo-ca-ted: pleaded for; defended.

CHAPTER L.

1867-1880.

REFORMS IN IRELAND.—The *Fenian* movement for the independence of Ireland; armed insurrection soon put down. Mr. Gladstone (now Premier) tried to remove Irish grievances,—disestablished the **Irish Protestant Episcopal Church**, depriving it and the Catholic and Presbyterian churches of state endowments, and putting them on same footing; passed a **Land Act** to improve the relations between landlords and tenants.

REFORMS IN ENGLAND.—**Education Act** establishing School Boards, and authorising them to levy rates for building and supporting schools, and to draw up bye-laws to enforce the attendance of children.

Ballot Act, providing that at municipal and parliamentary elections votes should be given in such a way, that none but the voter need know how he had voted.

Franco-German War.—The Prussian victories over Austria (see page 250) roused the jealousy of France and led to a great war. The French were totally defeated, the Emperor and his armies were captured, and, after a terrible siege, Paris was occupied by the Germans. At the peace France gave up part of Lorraine and Alsace, and paid 200,000,000*l.* The war led to the unification of Germany (of which William, King of Prussia, was made Emperor), and the downfall of the Empire in France, where the Republic was re-established. Louis Napoleon died in exile in England.

Russo-Turkish War caused by the atrocities perpetrated on the Christian inhabitants of Turkey. The Turks, after a struggle which lasted about a year, were totally defeated.

The Treaty of Berlin.—A conference of the European Powers was held at Berlin, and a treaty was drawn up, by which the territory of Montenegro was increased, Servia and Roumania were freed from tribute to the Sultan, and Bulgaria was given a prince of its own choosing, and made into a separate state, though tributary to Turkey.

War with the Zulus in South Africa. After several British reverses the Zulus were beaten, and their country temporarily put under British rule.

From 1874 to 1880 we had a conservative government under Mr. Disraeli (Earl Beaconsfield); but the general election of 1880 restored Mr. Gladstone to office.

vol'un-ta-ri-ly: of their own free will, and not because the law required it.

bal'-lot (*a little ball*): act of secret voting by putting a ball or ticket in a box.

ma-jor'-i-ty: the greater number; the difference between the greater number and the less.

gen-e-ra'tion: age; the people

living at one period, especially those of about the same age,—thus parents belong to one generation, and their children to another; one step in natural descent.

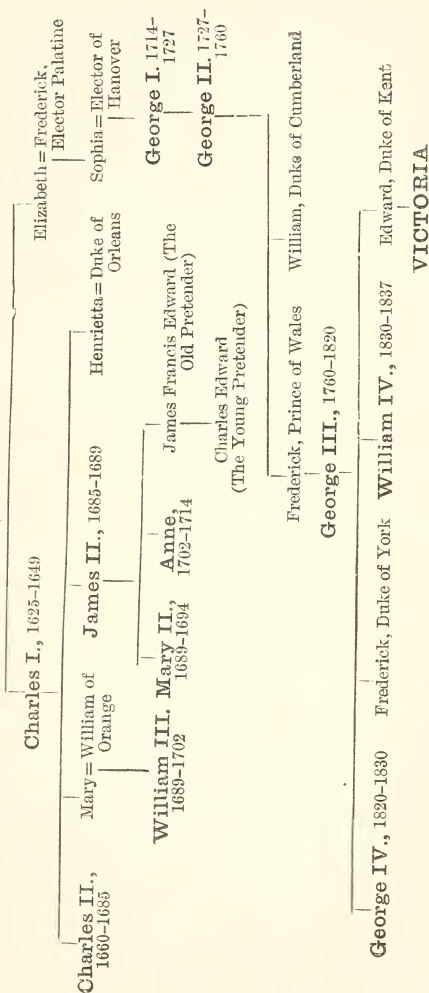
Browning: Robert Browning, one of our greatest living poets (Jan. 1883). Best known to children by his *Pied Piper of Hamelin*.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE.

THE HOUSES OF STUART AND HANOVER.

JAMES I., 1603-1625

(Great-great-grandson of Henry VII.)



IMPORTANT DATES.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, &c.

Steam-engine (pumping)	1698
Inoculation introduced	1718
Fahrenheit's Thermometer	1726
Lightning Conductor	1753
Watt's Steam-engines	1765
Spinning Jenny	1767
Oxygen discovered	1774
Arkwright's Power-loom	1785
Galvanism	1789
Symington's Steamboat	1789
Lighting by Coal Gas	1792
Vaccination announced	1798
'Comet' Steamboat on Clyde	1812
'Times' printed by steam	1814
Davy Safety Lamp	1815
Locomotive Steam-engine	1824
Liverpool and Manchester Railway	1830
Electric Telegraph	1836
Penny Postage	1840
London and Dover Telegraph	1851
Atlantic Telegraph laid	1866
Telephone invented	1877

POLITICAL EVENTS, &c.

The Crown offered to William and Mary	1689
The Toleration Act	1689
Battle of Killiecrankie	1689
Battle of the Boyne	1690
Peace of Ryswick	1697
Act of Settlement	1701

Act of Union with Scotland	1707
War of Spanish Succession	1702-13
Gibraltar taken	1704
Battle of Blenheim	1704
Battle of Ramillies	1706
Battle of Oudenarde	1708
Battle of Malplaquet	1709
Peace of Utrecht	1713
First Jacobite Rebellion	1715
South Sea Bubble	1720
2nd Jacobite Rebellion	1745
Battle of Plassey	1757
Capture of Quebec	1759
American War began	1775
American Declaration of Independence	1776
End of the American War	1783
French Revolution	1789
War between England and France	1793
Battle of Trafalgar	1805
Peninsular War	1808-14
Battle of Waterloo	1815
Catholic Emancipation	1829
Reform Bill	1832
Abolition of Slavery	1833
Repeal of Corn Laws	1846
Crimean War	1854-55
The Indian Mutiny	1857
Second Reform Bill	1867-68
Suez Canal opened	1869
Irish Church Disestablished	1869
Irish Land Act	1870
Education Act	1870
Ballot Act	1872

FAMOUS MEN.

STATESMEN, ARTISTS &c.

Sir Isaac Newton (<i>Astronomer</i>)	1642-1727
Duke of Marlborough (<i>General</i>)	1650-1722
Sir George Rooke (<i>Admiral</i>)	1650-1709
Sir Robert Walpole (<i>Statesman</i>)	1676-1745
G. F. Handel (<i>Musician</i>)	1685-1759
Lord George Anson (<i>Circumnavigator</i>)	1697-1762
William Hogarth (<i>Painter &c.</i>)	1697-1764
John Wesley (<i>Founder of Methodism</i>)	1703-1791
Lord Chatham (<i>Statesman</i>)	1708-1778
James Brindley (<i>Engineer</i>)	1716-1772
Lord Rodney (<i>Admiral</i>)	1718-1792
Sir Joshua Reynolds (<i>Painter</i>)	1723-1792
John Smeaton (<i>Engineer</i>)	1724-1792
Lord Clive (<i>General</i>)	1725-1774
Lord Howe (<i>Admiral</i>)	1725-1799
Captain James Cook (<i>Circumnavigator</i>)	1728-1779
Edmund Burke (<i>Statesman</i>)	1729-1797
Josiah Wedgwood (<i>Potter</i>)	1730-1795
Sir Richard Arkwright (<i>Mechanical Inventor</i>)	1732-1792
James Hargreaves (<i>Mechanical Inventor</i>)	1732-1778
Warren Hastings (<i>Governor-General of India</i>)	1733-1818
James Watt (<i>Mechanician</i>)	1736-1819
Sir William Herschel (<i>Astronomer</i>)	1738-1822
Charles James Fox (<i>Statesman</i>)	1749-1806
John Flaxman (<i>Sculptor</i>)	1755-1826
Lord Nelson (<i>Admiral</i>)	1758-1805
William Pitt (<i>Statesman</i>)	1759-1806
Duke of Wellington (<i>General and Statesman</i>)	1769-1852
J. M. W. Turner (<i>Painter</i>)	1775-1851
Daniel O'Connell (<i>Political Orator</i>)	1775-1847
Sir Humphry Davy (<i>Chemist</i>)	1778-1829
George Stephenson (<i>Engineer</i>)	1781-1848
Lord Palmerston (<i>Statesman</i>)	1784-1865
Sir Robert Peel (<i>Statesman</i>)	1788-1850
Lord John Russell (<i>Statesman</i>)	1792-1878
Robert Stephenson (<i>Engineer</i>)	1803-1859
Richard Cobden (<i>Political Economist and Statesman</i>)	1804-1865
Lord Beaconsfield (<i>Statesman</i>)	1805-1881
William E. Gladstone (<i>Statesman</i>)	1809

AUTHORS.

John Dryden (<i>Absalom, &c.</i>)	1631-1700
John Locke (<i>Human Understanding</i>)	1632-1704
Daniel Defoe (<i>Robinson Crusoe &c.</i>)	1661-1731
Jonathan Swift (<i>Gulliver's Travels</i>)	1667-1745
Joseph Addison (<i>Essays</i>)	1672-1719
Alexander Pope (<i>Dunciad; Translation of Homer &c.</i>)	1688-1744
Samuel Richardson (<i>Pamela</i>)	1689-1761
Jos. Butler, Bishop (<i>Analogy of Religion</i>)	1692-1752
James Thomson (<i>The Seasons</i>)	1700-1748
Henry Fielding (<i>Tom Jones</i>)	1707-1754
Samuel Johnson (<i>Dictionary; Lives of Poets</i>)	1709-1784
David Hume (<i>History of England</i>)	1711-1776
Tobias Smollett (<i>Humphrey Clinker</i>)	1721-1771
Oliver Goldsmith (<i>Deserted Village</i>)	1728-1774
William Cowper (<i>The Task</i>)	1731-1800
Edward Gibbon (<i>Decline and Fall of Roman Empire</i>)	1737-1794
William Paley (<i>Natural Theology</i>)	1743-1805
Robert Burns (<i>Poems</i>)	1759-1796
William Cobbett (<i>Political Writings</i>)	1762-1835
William Wordsworth (<i>Ballads and other Poems</i>)	1770-1850
Sir Walter Scott (<i>Waverley Novels &c.</i>)	1771-1832
S. T. Coleridge (<i>Ancient Mariner &c.</i>)	1772-1834
Henry Hallam (<i>Constitutional History</i>)	1777-1859
Thomas Moore (<i>Irish Melodies</i>)	1780-1851
Thomas de Quincey (<i>Opium Eater</i>)	1786-1859
Lord Byron (<i>Childe Harold</i>)	1788-1824
P. B. Shelley (<i>The Cenci</i>)	1792-1822
George Grote (<i>History of Greece</i>)	1794-1871
Thomas Carlyle (<i>French Revolution</i>)	1795-1881
Thomas Hood (<i>Song of the Shirt</i>)	1799-1845
Lord Macaulay (<i>History of England</i>)	1800-1859
Lord Lytton (<i>Rienzi &c.</i>)	1805-1872
John S. Mill (<i>Political Economy</i>)	1806-1873
Charles Darwin (<i>Origin of Species</i>)	1809-1882
Alfred Tennyson (<i>Idylls of the King</i>)	1810
W. M. Thackeray (<i>Vanity Fair</i>)	1811-1863
Charles Dickens (<i>David Copperfield</i>)	1812-1871
Robert Browning (<i>Pied Piper</i>)	1812
John Ruskin (<i>Modern Painters</i>)	1819

